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ABSTRACT

The existing curriculum, geared to the past generation, no longer fits the times. The context is sufficiently changed to require a changed curriculum. It is not clear what the changes will be, although some elements appear likely to endure, such as a new conception of intellectual development reflected in reconceived subject matter; a reexamination of the teacher's function; a considerable increase in the breadth of educational materials; greater flexibility and variation in school organization and in a student's progress through school; a considerably increased sophistication of testing procedures; and more and better school guidance. Generally speaking, curriculum designers want the curriculum to respect intellectual, humane, and social considerations. The authors of this volume have attacked the knotty problem of reducing these generalities to specific and disciplined formulations. Written by 12 authors, the comments represent several points of view held by curriculum workers. (Author/DN)

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Balance in the Curriculum

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From the Association

A CONCEPTION of what "balance" means in the curriculum is a necessity in any time. In these days of upheaval in education, however, such a conception is an urgent necessity. It is possible that the new curriculum patterns, when they have emerged, will prove to be in better balance than anything we have known. However, taken as a whole, it could be that the new curriculum will imply a distorted version of our culture, of our ideals as a people, even of what we want an American to be. This has happened in the past, at those times when it has become apparent that the existing curriculum no longer fitted the times. The changes have not always proved to be improvements; sometimes, despite the best efforts of wise men, the result has been only to substitute one distortion for another.

It seems clear enough that the curriculum as it has been during the past generation does not fit the present time. Whatever its merits are or were, the context is sufficiently changed to require a changed curriculum. It is not yet clear what the changes will be, although some elements appear likely to endure: a new conception of intellectual development, reflected in reconceived subject matter; a re-examination of the teacher's function; a considerable increase in the breadth of educational materials; greater flexibility and variation in school organization and in a student's progress through school; a considerably increased sophistication of testing procedures; more and better school guidance. At the same time, little further attention is being given to the other elements that have been introduced in the schools since World War I: recognition of the implied as well as the overt social learnings the school teaches; the relationship between the various aspects of human development—intellectual, emotional, aesthetic, social, biological, spiritual; social usefulness as a criterion for the selection of subject matter; education as life as well as preparation for life; the place of the school in the array of social institutions that deal with all people.

Generally speaking (and we have to speak generally about these matters, given the present state of knowledge), curriculum designers want the curriculum to respect all of these considerations: the intellectual, the humane, the social. If it does not, the curriculum is out of balance.

The authors of *Balance in the Curriculum* have attacked the knotty problem of reducing these generalities to specific and disciplined formulations. The book is to be taken as a contribution to a necessary conversation. It represents accurately several points of view that curriculum workers hold. The authors make no claim that the book is definitive. It is a *yearbook* for 1961; its date is part of its content. The Association offers it proudly, as truly representing the way its members try to confront problems of whatever difficulty. It was, as the authors state, a very difficult book to prepare. They nevertheless undertook its preparation, and they have the gratitude of the Association for their sincerity, their honesty, and their effectiveness.

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November 1960

ARTHUR W. FOSHAY, *President*
The Association for Supervision
and Curriculum Development

Contents

From the Association
ARTHUR W. FOSHAY iii

The 1961 Yearbook Committee vii

The Writers ix

CHAPTERS

Foreword
PAUL M. HALVERSON 1

ONE The Meaning of Balance
PAUL M. HALVERSON 3

TWO Curriculum Balance in the Current Social Scene
HOWARD LEAVITT 17

THREE Values in Curriculum Decision Making
SAMUEL EVERETT 33

FOUR Balance and the Problem of Purpose in Education
ROBERT S. FOX 49

FIVE Balance in Teaching Methods and Learning Processes
FRANCIS J. DI VESTA 66

SIX Balance and the Selection of Content
GORDON GARDNER · LEONARD
GRINDSTAFF · EVELYN WENZEL 95

SEVEN Problems in Organizing the School Program To Achieve Balance
PAUL M. MITCHUM · ARCHIE G.
RICHARDSON 126

EIGHT Balancing the Roles in Curriculum Decision Making
GERALD B. LEIGHBODY · ERNEST F.
WEINRICH 162

ASCD Board of Directors 195

ASCD Executive Committee 195

ASCD Headquarters Staff 197

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Foreword

THE ASSOCIATION for Supervision and Curriculum Development is known for the wide participation by its members in Association activities. In annual conferences, yearbook and booklet preparation, committee and commission responsibilities, and other phases of its program, members participate actively and effectively. Hundreds of ASCD members can testify to the values derived through their participation in the activities of the organization. The members of the 1961 Yearbook Committee, then, are no exception when they say that their involvement in the planning and writing of the current volume has been an exciting and rewarding experience.

An organization such as ASCD faces a dilemma in choosing topics for discussion in its yearbooks. Whether the topics chosen should represent timely professional concerns or whether the yearbook should be devoted to perennial problems in curriculum and supervision constitutes a major issue for planning groups. As the members of the 1961 Yearbook Committee set about their work, they seemed to be charged with a concern for a very current and crucial development on the American educational scene—namely, pressures for "more of this and less of that" in the curriculum of the American elementary and secondary school. More thoughtful consideration of these pressures suggests that this type of demand has appeared many times over the years and that the problem of curriculum balance is always with us as we go about the task of providing appropriate educational opportunities in the schools for boys and girls.

The inception of the present yearbook may be traced to the months immediately following the launching of the first sputnik in October 1957. At that time urgency and speed in curriculum change, without much thought as to direction, seemed uppermost in the minds of many self-appointed critics of the schools. Now, three or four years later, the strong pressures which were experienced in 1958 seem to have been somewhat reduced or redirected. Nevertheless, the old issues remain, in some cases not fully seen, and certainly not generally resolved in commonly accepted policies and practices.

At the same time that plans were being made for the 1961 yearbook, ASCD as an organization took other steps. The Association recognized problems in the area of curriculum balance and included this in its Cooperative Action Program for Curriculum Improvement (CAPCI) plans which were adopted in 1958 at its Seattle conference. Subsequently, several working papers were developed as part of the CAPCI program. Among these was a paper written by a committee headed by William M. Alexander and Sam H. Moorer. Reference to this paper, entitled "Balance in the Curriculum," is made later in this volume.

The 1961 Yearbook Committee used its time in Seattle defining terms and establishing the various dimensions of curriculum balance as the members perceived these at the time. The Cincinnati meeting saw the committee refining its ideas to date and organizing the yearbook in chapters and outlines of content. During the next 12 months writing assignments were assumed and rough drafts were prepared for consideration at the Washington, D.C., conference in 1960. Here final decisions were made on content, emphasis and other matters which contribute to the final form of the book.

As mentioned before, the Yearbook Committee regards the experience of preparing this volume as most rewarding, even though certain frustrations and problems were constantly in the foreground of the cooperative undertaking. Not all that can be said on curriculum balance is included in this volume. At points, also, there are disagreements on minor emphases or details. We hope, however, that this volume will serve to identify for the reader some of the major considerations of the problem of curriculum balance and encourage further study and discussion. Such a result will help greatly in leading to sound theory and practice in the area of balance in the years ahead.

PAUL M. HALVERSON, *Chairman*
The ASCD 1961 Yearbook Committee

CHAPTER ONE

The Meaning of Balance

PAUL M. HALVERSON

THE IMPORTANCE of words in human affairs needs no reaffirmation in this volume. Without the skill of dealing in verbal abstractions we would be greatly handicapped in trying to grapple with the ideas suggested by the title of this book, *Balance in the Curriculum*. Yet it is because of words, and much use of these, that great misunderstanding and conflict in the world of ideas have resulted. The nature and extent of these "wars of words" depend in part on a lack of clarity in meanings, both denotative and connotative. These deficiencies can be rectified by clearer definition of terms and greater precision in their use.

A hazard in communication is created when we *seem* to agree on terms; that is, we agree on the words to be used as substitutes for other words. However, we do not really sense the subtleties of thought and action which are obscured by trying to catch up meaning in a single word or a combination of words. The host of personal, private meanings which can be evoked by a single word is frightening for one who is attempting to communicate ideas by words.

Consider further the problem created by individuals or groups who seem to agree on definition of terms and their meanings for policy or practice. Subsequently, however, it becomes clear that no real agreement exists on terms and their meaning. A kind of consensus has been reached, enough at least to allow the group or individuals to move ahead in programs of action. However, in daily activity it appears there are some fundamental disagreements which have not been apparent at the level of discussion. This kind of problem for individual and group planning and action is fairly common in our society. We depend so greatly upon words for communication and yet fall prey to easy acceptance of words and their assumed meanings for individuals or groups.

Political campaigners, diplomats, advertising agencies, patriotic and religious groups, social workers, medical practitioners, men of letters, and, not least, professional educators, confuse issues and compound problems by careless use of words. Sometimes individuals or groups with ulterior motives may mask meanings by specialized jargon. Just as often they delude themselves and others into believing that they are communicating ideas when they are only overburdening simple language with difficult and abstract concepts. In either case a lack of precision in language usage results in chaos at the level of behavior and action by individuals and groups.

B. Othanel Smith tells of encountering a friend coming out of a group discussion. He asked, "Were the group members in disagreement in their discussion?" His friend replied, "They couldn't disagree, because they weren't talking about the same thing." In our discussion of the curriculum of the modern school we may well find ourselves agreeing at many points because we seem to be using the same words in the same way. However, study of action situations in which our ideas are put to work may reveal fundamental disagreement.

An example is the title of this yearbook, *Balance in the Curriculum*. We take this title to mean that the content will treat problems of *achieving* and *maintaining* balance in the curriculum. Here is a collection of words on which there would seem to be little disagreement. One person or a group devised this title for the volume around a cluster of ideas which must have grown out of thought and discussion on the part of the individual or group. For this person or these people this title seemed to convey ideas about which thought needed to be generated and communicated. Does the very title of the yearbook communicate sufficiently so that the authors and readers are proceeding to explore the issues involved, starting from the same point in terms of meaning? The Yearbook Committee believed such an eventuality was unlikely and that it was necessary early in the volume to give some attention to the title of the yearbook, with particular reference to the word, "balance." The following pages give our ideas, both those on which consensus was reached and those which may represent some disagreement in the committee.

Balance in the Current Social Setting

Balance to some seems a "good" word per se, suggesting structure and order in an enterprise leading to the realization of personal or group objectives. "Balanced diet" and "balanced economy," for example, are phrases which, in the former, connote desirable means and, in the latter, desirable ends. A balanced curriculum implies structure and order in its scope and sequence (means) leading to the achievement of educational objectives (ends).

The story of curriculum development becomes a history of both evolution and revolution in terms of achieving and maintaining balance between means and ends. Perhaps consistency is a better word than balance. Curriculum in the American public school has been characterized for the most part by slow adaptation of means to ends. In the colonial period, when educational goals were limited to a few narrow objectives for a small number of students, the problem of curriculum scope and sequence was relatively simple.

As educational opportunity was extended by legal provisions in a climate of democratic ideas, objectives became more numerous and complex and "curriculum lag," one aspect of curricular imbalance, became apparent. Franklin's Academy and the common school became replacements for the Latin grammar school and the limited elementary education of the seventeenth century. In a sense, these eighteenth century educational developments were the first strivings for curriculum balance in American schools. These achievements were followed by the English High School in Boston, coeducation, and the first signs of vocationalism in the nineteenth century.

At other times in our history social forces and accompanying changes in values have been so rapid and strong in their appearance and development that adaptations in educational purposes and programs have been accelerated. World War I, the depression years of the 1930's, and World War II have been occasions for rather startling shifts in educational philosophy and curriculum, in contrast to the more stable years in our history. The more recent arrival of the atomic age has again precipitated a reconsideration of fundamental educational beliefs and practices, prompting in part this yearbook.

The preceding historical, descriptive analysis of curriculum balance is one greatly influenced by the needs and demands of society. This, of course, is a necessary and important consideration, for the school in any era must reflect the values and concerns of the society it serves. Alexander and Moorer have stated this idea as follows.

> The problem of balance has two dimensions. First, and this is the dimension generally discussed, there is the balance sought in the curriculum *provided* by the school. Here there is special concern at the secondary level regarding subjects to be offered and required and programs of studies to be recommended. However, the problem of this dimension exists at each grade level, for decisions must be reached beginning in the primary grades as to time allotments for various subjects and activities, the length of work and play sessions, the use of books and other educational aids such as television, and especially in colleges and univer-

sities there is great concern over the respective amounts of general and specialized education to be provided.

Discussions of balance in the curriculum *provided* usually deal with particular segments of the curriculum; for example, reading is intermittently criticized and defended as having too great or too little emphasis. Currently science and mathematics are being promoted at all school levels. In war periods demands for physical education and vocational education have been common. College preparation, or the lack thereof, has been a persistent concern and today is increasingly so. Foreign languages, art and music have had their ups and downs, as indeed have nearly all curriculum areas in one place or another at some time. Clearly, the curriculum of the American schools has been and remains a battleground of competing and conflicting demands.[1]

From this analysis it can be seen that curriculum development has a significant relationship to the nature of the society which supports the school, and to the relative stability or fluidity of the culture. In times of cultural stability the curriculum of the school remains constant and may be in balance, so to speak. However, in periods of great social change the problem of "curriculum lag" becomes very pressing and at such times curriculum imbalance is the notable feature of schools. Chapter Two of the yearbook takes a long look at curriculum balance in the current social setting, with particular emphasis upon changing aspects of our culture which impinge upon the school and its program. The real purpose of the chapter is to point out the pervasive social issues and problems which underlie the concerns of people as they view the current social milieu. Ultimately this chapter comes around to the question of values, and as such it provides a bridge to Chapter Three on values and on curriculum balance based on a system of democratic values.

It is clear that Chapters Two and Three in a sense are basic to all others in this volume. These chapters suggest and develop the value system on which we believe American public education is based and which must be taken into account as decisions are made about curriculum balance. Where value conflicts exist or are developing on a broad scale, these are identified for the reader. Insofar as possible we suggest the value conflicts which seem apparent to us. We argue the right and obligation of professional educators to state their value choices, even though they may not concur with pronouncements from other groups or agencies or indeed even be in complete agreement with other professional educators.

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[1] William M. Alexander, Sam H. Moorer and others. "Balance in the Curriculum." A working paper. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 1959. p. 1-2. (Mimeo.)

Thus, one aspect of balance in the curriculum is certainly related to an appropriate consideration of the society which the school serves and the demands placed upon the school to fulfill its role in that society. Curriculum balance will probably always be lacking because institutions of all kinds are slow in adapting to new needs and demands of the culture, except when social change is rapid and urgent in its implications for these institutions. In a period such as the present, when change in our society is pervasive and rapid, we can expect greater consciousness on the part of both professional educators and lay persons of dislocations between the school program and the realities of life outside the school. It is for this reason that we need to examine closely (in Chapters Two and Three) the current social setting and its meaning for value shifts with their accompanying implications for curriculum development.

Balance for the Individual Learner

There remains, however, another equally important consideration which often is overlooked by persons concerned with the school and its contribution to the culture. We refer to the responsibility of an educational institution to take into account the needs of the individual which are more personal and private and do not have as clear a relationship to the social demands upon the institution as might be thought. It is true that the needs of society are not incompatible with personal individual needs at all times. However, the appropriate consideration of the importance of the individual and the satisfaction of his personal needs in relationship to the demands of society constitute another aspect of curriculum balance.

This particular consideration has been pointed up very well by Alexander and Moorer in the previously cited reference. They make the following points:

> The second, and in many ways more significant, dimension of balance is that of the curriculum actually *selected* by and/or *experienced* by each individual pupil. If the curriculum *provided* is broad, varied, and flexible in learning opportunities, the curriculum *selected* and *experienced* may be highly appropriate for the individual. If the curriculum provided is *restricted* and *inflexible*, there is little opportunity for the *selection* of learning opportunities, and individuals suffer from curriculum impoverishment and imbalance.
>
> Ideally, balance is attained in the individual's own curriculum as he or she develops an optimum level of competence in each of the areas for which provision is made in the curriculum. Upon completion of the program of elementary and secondary education each boy or girl should be able to function effectively within his or her limitations in the various areas. No two would necessarily have

> followed the same program of studies, and certainly no two would have selected at all times the same learning opportunities. Neither would any two necessarily function at the same level of competence. But each would be as competent, and in as many respects, as his capabilities and aspirations permit.[2]

Here we have illustrated the age-old conflict between the society-centered curriculum and the individual-centered curriculum. In any period of rapid social change the emphasis necessarily focuses on new needs and demands of the society upon the individual and the school. Another kind of curriculum decision must be considered, namely, that of an appropriate balance between society's needs and the psychobiological needs of the individual learner. It is at this point that much confusion and conflict may arise. In viewing the curriculum of the school and its impact on the learner, the average person places almost sole emphasis on the individual adjusting to the curriculum *provided* by the school.

The professional educator, trained and experienced in working directly with boys and girls in the teaching-learning situation, recognizes that society's needs are not always viewed by the learner as appropriate for himself and for the satisfaction of his immediate personal needs. Specifically, the current demand for more of this and less of that may be perfectly rationalized when viewed solely from the standpoint of the adult in our society who sees the responsibility of the school as that of contributing to the solution of national problems. However, the individual child or youth may not be ready to assume these responsibilities to his society through his school as quickly as his teachers, parents and other persons may desire. For example, there is currently a great emphasis upon science and mathematics in the schools. This stress, arising through an assumed and probably urgent need in our culture, may not be sufficiently persuasive to the individual learner, at least to the point at which more study of science and mathematics may appeal to him. The answer that some persons give is that a more directive guidance is necessary on the part of the school staff to assure a trend of more young persons toward the study of mathematics and science.

At this point it is necessary to raise questions about the nature of the guidance that is suggested. If the national need is as urgent as some say, then, as in other times of emergency, the school can rise to the occasion. As in other emergencies, however, conscription rather than guidance may be the answer. Most persons would recognize the unpleasant aspects involved in this approach to providing experiences for youth, yet here we must place our feelings behind us and turn to the task which seems to be forced upon us. However, it should be clear from the outset that this approach is not without its dangers and difficulties. A mass movement in the direction of more of this and less of that may satisfy on paper the societal demands placed on the schools. To equate this, however, with effective and satisfying learning experiences for children and youth is quite another matter. In fact, it may follow that for many youngsters these kinds of forced choices may result in low-level learning and the development of attitudes toward education, society and life in general that are not wholesome, either for the individual or for society.

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[2] *Ibid.*, p. 4-5.

Another aspect of balance relates to the nature of the individual learner and how he learns. Much of the current criticism of the public school curriculum and most of the demands for reform are geared to the intellectual growth and development of students. However, there are other aspects of learning and growth which also merit attention. Such a statement may call for further criticism from individuals or groups, and gain the epithet of "anti-intellectuals" for professional educators. Nevertheless, there is a unity in the learning activities of students which stems from the interrelationships of intellectual interests and activity, physical growth and activity, emotional characteristics, and the socialization needs of learners.

A primary task of the school is the intellectual development of students. To minimize the importance of or make no provision for the other dimensions of human growth and development is not, however, a mere matter of choice. Without attention to these other elements in the teaching-learning situation, intellectual development will be minimal and teachers and students alike will suffer from frustration and lack of achievement. Thus, another feature of balance in the curriculum suggests an appropriate distribution of attention to the cognitive and affective components of teaching-learning experiences.

Closely related to these psychological aspects of curriculum development are other equally important matters, such as a consideration of the wide range of individual differences among students which cannot be overlooked in thinking about curriculum balance. There must be balance in the provision of wide offerings in the curriculum so that there are opportunities for all kinds of learners to achieve success and satisfaction to the limit of their capacities. This point of view, in the light of current demands for education for leadership, raises some interesting dilemmas. Many proposals are currently being offered which imply a need for better education of intellectually superior youngsters. There can be no quarrel with this proposition, but if the public schools of America focus their attention on this development at the expense of other segments of the student population, serious questions can be raised about a balanced curriculum for all learners.

These latter concerns about the nature of learning and the learner are primarily psychological rather than sociological considerations. Yet there are aspects of the psychological foundations of curriculum making which bear directly upon the sociology of a community and of a nation, particularly as they relate to social class differences in our culture. Adding all these elements together, it is clear that, important as societal needs and demands are in determining the curriculum of a school, there remains for the professional educator the responsibility of injecting the psychological foundations of curriculum making, so that a balance may be secured between the societal and individual needs served by the school.

Chapters Four, Five, Six and Seven deal with the kinds of problems faced by teachers and learners as they struggle to achieve balance in the curriculum, taking into account both the social and psychological foundations. In a sense these chapters are the heart of this volume because they come to grips with the struggle of the professional educator to achieve a balance between social demands and individual needs.

Concepts of Curriculum

Another word in the title of this yearbook, *Balance in the Curriculum*, needs attention. "Curriculum" as a single word needs clarification and agreement by all who use it in connection with school program planning. As one reads or hears current comments on the inadequacies of modern schools, the word "curriculum" is used in a very narrow sense. To some persons the word "curriculum" means simply "subjects" for which one gets credit or marks. In other words, the learning experiences in the formal classroom in direct contact with other learners and teachers constitute the curriculum. For a long time it has been evident, both to professional educators and to some lay persons, that a more adequate concept of the curriculum would include all experiences boys and girls have under the guidance of the school.

However, it is precisely at this point that disagreement develops. To many persons there seems to be a proliferation of experiences and activities for the students in our schools which should not be dignified by the term "curriculum." These are commonly referred to as "frills." Nevertheless, a consideration of these kinds of experiences by the present learners in our schools or an honest recollection of their own school experience by these critical adults will testify to the value of the many kinds of experiences learners have outside the formal classroom, but under guidance of the school. It does not seem necessary to recount these learnings, but most people would agree that students learn many things, both positive and negative, in other settings than the classroom—the football field, the school corridors, the cafeteria, the school bus, the clubs—and in countless planned and unplanned experiences which confront students from day to day.

The question may well be raised whether or not these aspects of the curriculum, or, as some people choose to call them, the "extracurriculum," are sufficiently well planned and integrated with the activities of the formal classroom. However, either to label these experiences as unimportant or to suggest that they should be thrown out of the schools seems unrealistic, both because of their apparent prominence in the minds of learners and because of the values which may be present in them. Of course, it is at this point that values and value systems come into conflict, but even in the case of agreed-upon goals and values a broader concept of the curriculum may need to be entertained. Much as we may formalize the curriculum of the classroom in terms of carefully developed courses of study, the fact is that students learn much desirable "content" outside the classroom or even outside the school. For purposes of this discussion the curriculum is limited to those experiences under the guidance of the school. Day in and day out, boys and girls spend many minutes of the school day outside formal classrooms, and these times ought to be organized in terms of productive learning experiences which contribute to balanced intellectual, physical, social and emotional growth of students.

The problem of balance in the curriculum, therefore, is further complicated by a consideration of the relationship of formal instruction in the classroom setting to less formal, and perhaps more natural settings for learning in the total school. There is general agreement that schools differ widely in the amount and kind of balance achieved between the curriculum and the extracurriculum. However, there may be greater success in achieving this kind of balance if arbitrary divisions between that which is curricular and that which is extracurricular are eliminated and the total experience of youngsters under the guidance of the school is viewed for its learning potentialities.

A narrow concept of the curriculum will inevitably focus upon a single primary task of the school, that of intellectual development, but such attention will make the meaning of the curriculum very close to its classical derivation—"a racetrack." That a well-balanced development will take place in such a setting seems highly unlikely. We need, therefore, to turn to a definition of curriculum that comes closer to reality. It has been said that the curriculum really is "what youngsters learn." This in a real sense is a proposition which needs to be looked at closely, because most teachers will testify that often beautiful curricula can be built, yet with very little subsequent learning. There is a great need to bring together in balance the consideration of the curriculum as adults see it and the curriculum as learners experience it. Perhaps this can best be achieved if a concept of curriculum is held that views all learning opportunities provided by the school as potential contributions to the balanced development of learners.

Balance in the Process of Curriculum Development

Emphasis in this chapter has been primarily on issues of the substantive content of the curriculum provided by the school, and on the implications of these issues for balance. As such, attention has been given primarily to the learning product. It may be said, however, that the process of curriculum development lends itself to consideration in terms of balance. The words "achieving" and "maintaining" may also be considered in relation to the title of the yearbook and in relation to the development of balance in the school program. The Yearbook Committee found this consideration intriguing and of sufficient importance to merit further treatment in Chapter Eight. In this chapter the focus will be placed upon roles of various individuals and groups working on the development of school programs. Administrators, supervisors, teachers, pupils, parents, legislators, special interest groups, and other forces in and out of the school setting will be brought into a relationship which bears upon the curriculum, and which suggests the need for balance among these varied elements. "What persons and forces influence the curriculum? How is balance achieved among them?" are the questions considered in the final chapter.

Attention has been given previously to the curriculum *provided* by the school and the curriculum which is *selected* by students. We hope the point is clear that curriculum decisions made by adults are fundamental to the process of school program development. These adult decisions in turn must be related to the attitudes, values and needs of the individual learner as he selects from the instructional program provided by the school or takes what is required.

One aspect of balance is the joint effort of teachers and learners to plan cooperatively the curriculum of greatest significance, both to society and to the individual. Historically this balance has been notably lacking in most periods of American public education. At some times the balance is heavily in favor of adult domination and control, at fewer times in favor of learners' interest and participation in the selection of school experiences. In the current social setting it would seem that the balance is swinging toward more adult domination of curriculum decision making because of pressures from society for the solution of problems in the interest of national security and well-being. One of the problems which perennially faces a school, and particularly teachers and pupils, is that of achieving and maintaining balance in cooperative endeavors in the classroom, rather than tipping the scales in the direction of teacher domination, on the one hand, or in favor of pupil control, on the other. This is a delicate balance and requires sensitivity and skill on the part of both teachers and students in the classroom setting. Much professional literature has been devoted to the processes of cooperative planning of purpose, activities and evaluation of learning experiences. Our interest here is not to add to this literature but only to highlight it as an important aspect of curriculum development processes.

However, important as cooperative relationships between pupils and teachers may be, many other forces operate to affect the experiences which students have in the school. A constellation of relationships may be suggested which relate to the fundamental issue of balance in curriculum development programs. For example, administrator-teacher relationships, teacher-parent relationships, teacher-teacher relationships, school-community groups relationships, school-state departments of education relationships, and school-national groups relationships, to mention a few, are everywhere present to influence the nature and course of school program development.

The preceding complex of relationships suggests the size and difficulty of the curriculum development task and the need for skill in human relationships among the various elements involved. Curriculum development implies change; change may represent threat to long-established values, and such a setting is potentially one of conflict and dissension. As a result of these dynamics, there are some professional educators who may deliberately choose an attitude of restraint and inactivity on curriculum issues, preferring this to interaction among the previously mentioned elements with possible resulting conflict. This kind of professional inertia accounts for much of the curriculum lag in the schools today. Many professional educators hope that no one will "rock the boat." Another alternative which some professionals may choose when pressures for change become insistent is that of pitting forces, one against another, to the point that all of them are immobilized as far as any practical impacts on curriculum change are concerned. In this sense a kind of balance is created and maintained, but hardly one that can be equated with a dynamic school system geared to meet the needs of individuals and society.

It is proposed here that the great need in American education today is for democratic leadership. Such leadership sees balance in the curriculum as the product of democratic interaction among the various forces impinging upon the school under the guidance of intelligent professional workers in education. As such, achieving and maintaining balance in the curriculum becomes a matter of defining roles and providing a setting where the various elements in our society interested in the schools have an opportunity to participate in the planning of programs of curriculum development. Again, there are some professional educators who argue against this position, saying that curriculum development is a professional task and that nonprofessionals only complicate the process by their participation. Some of the current criticism of public education and its programs may be symptomatic of a rebellion against this kind of attitude held by some professional educators. The answer is not a surrender of professional prerogatives to nonprofessional people. Rather, it is a creative employment of all elements in our society which have an interest in the schools and have contributions to make to the improvement of the curriculum. This is no small and easy task, yet a balancing of roles is required if any hope is to be held for this kind of process in a democratic society.

One final note might be made in connection with the words, "achieving" and "maintaining," as these relate to balance in the curriculum. In view of the dynamic nature of our society and of the school curriculum, it may be argued that these words are not appropriate in a consideration of balance in the curriculum. Some might say that balance may never be truly achieved and certainly should not be maintained in curriculum development. This is an interesting viewpoint which takes into account the pressures that are present in a culture undergoing rapid and significant changes. Perhaps it can be agreed that these terms, "achieving" and "maintaining," can be used only relatively. That is, balance in the curriculum may be achieved and maintained to the degree that it allows an institution charged with the education of children and youth to develop a curriculum pattern. Thus, education can become a deliberate process, with planning, action and evaluation an integral part of the development of the institution.

No matter how dynamic a society and its institutions may be, there comes a time when consolidation of planning and action must take place to the point at which a systematic tryout is made of proposals for education. Without this agreement both the institutions and the individuals served by them would be in such a constant state of flux as to be ineffective in providing the stability which institutions promote. Perhaps the phrase, "working toward balance in the curriculum," would be a more appropriate title for this volume, recognizing that the achievement and maintenance of balance are only temporary goals which must be constantly re-evaluated in the light of new demands and pressures. In either case, however, the question of balance of roles in curriculum development becomes a crucial matter. This is dealt with more completely in Chapter Eight.

Taking a Position on Curriculum Balance

As a final consideration of this chapter, it is proposed that each person interested in the education of children and youth is required to decide what balance in the curriculum means. Teachers, administrators, parents, board of education members, legislators, employers, to mention a few—all are called upon from time to time to suggest what curriculum emphases are appropriate and to what degree. These judgments will vary greatly, depending upon the values of the individual and the depth of insight he possesses about the growth and development of learners.

For example, a parent may see certain curriculum emphases as desirable if he covets certain goals for his child, regardless of the child's ability to achieve these goals. An employer may place certain skills above attitudes cherished by the parent, even though he too is probably a parent. Legislators may be under pressure to mandate certain school experiences in the interests of national defense. In turn, the school administrator may place a priority on certain habits and appreciations as basic to a general education for all children. In the midst of these varied demands, the teacher and pupil are put in a position of making choices or of attempting to meet all these demands.

Choices will be made by both teachers and learners. For the teacher, this means that he is an effective curriculum maker. In any body of organized educative experiences, everything cannot be taught. Some things must be left out, and some things will be emphasized more than others. For the pupil, it means that some things will not be learned, in some cases because he cannot learn, in others because he will not.

The great need at all times is *conscious, deliberate decision making,* based on clearly defined criteria. These criteria stem from our values and value patterns, our educational goals, and the nature of the learner. The educator is in a strategic position to bring together all of these considerations for curriculum decision making. This is not to say that others outside the teaching profession have no values, goals or understandings about learning. Rather, they have a role to play with the guidance of the professional educators.

Unfortunately, many educators have not thought through their values or made them explicit enough to serve as guides to curriculum making or to teaching. Confronted with challenges to their professional judgment, they either abdicate their responsibility to clarify values, or "running scared," bow to every demand made of their schools. In times of social crisis, they are particularly vulnerable because the seeming urgency prompts hasty responses to pressures.

It is hoped that this yearbook, coming as it does at a critical period in our history, will help all who read it to become more competent, both in making curriculum decisions when appropriate, or assisting in these decisions when the need for collaboration is indicated. The yearbook offers no "recipes" for balance, as the writers believe that balance must be *worked toward,* rather than being *achieved* and *maintained.* Instead, the yearbook raises many questions and offers many considerations to be pondered by curriculum makers. Hopefully, from such individual introspection and from sincere attempts to arrive at consensus will come balance in the curriculum. To the reader of this yearbook should come a greater sense of need for him to take a considered position that will be tested against others' positions in the day-to-day activity of providing education for children and youth in America.

In summary, an attempt has been made in this chapter to:

1. *Explore various dimensions of balance as it relates to curriculum development.* Attention was paid to societal, individual and psychological orientation in curriculum decision making.

2. *Expand the definition of curriculum for purposes of discussing curriculum balance.* Arguments were advanced that without a broad concept of what the curriculum is, imbalance is inevitable.

3. *Delineate the relationships in curriculum development processes (achieving and maintaining) which are crucial to balance in the school program.* Balance among roles of persons and groups involved in curriculum decision making was suggested as basic to the evolution of a balanced curriculum.

4. *Help the reader find himself and his position in relation to balance in the curriculum.* It is hoped that the reader takes a position provisionally at this point, waiting until he reads the remaining seven chapters of the yearbook to reinforce his position or to reconsider his previously held views.

CHAPTER TWO

Curriculum Balance in the Current Social Scene

HOWARD LEAVITT

THE PURPOSE of this chapter is to point up the difficulty faced by schools as they strive for curriculum balance among the bewildering social forces impinging upon the school. The first part of the chapter deals with social forces and people, and how people in their daily talk reflect these deeper forces of society. The second part of the chapter examines three basic assumptions having to do with the nature of culture, social change, and the school's potential power to exert influence. The third part deals briefly with curriculum implications.

People and Social Forces [1]

1. *Technology has become America's greatest preoccupation. America's potentiality to produce things appears to be limitless; man's appetite for things seems to be insatiable.*

But . . .

An assembly line worker says, "You ask me if I like my job? No! How could a person enjoy a job like this in which you do the same thing over and over again?"

Another factory worker says, "You have good pay in order to make up for the boredom of the job. We want shorter and shorter hours just because we can't get much satisfaction from this kind of a job."

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[1] For detailed and readable discussions of these forces see, for example: Erich Fromm. *Escape from Freedom.* New York: Rinehart & Co., 1941; Erich Fromm. *The Sane Society.* New York: Rinehart & Co., 1955; John K. Galbraith. *The Affluent Society.* Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1958; Karen Horney. *The Neurotic Personality of Our Time.* New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1937; Aldous L. Huxley. *Brave New World Revisited.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1958; Joseph W. Krutch. *Human Nature and the Human Condition.* New York: Random House, 1959; Max Lerner. *America as a Civilization.* New York: Simon & Shuster, 1957; Vance O. Packard. *The Hidden Persuaders.* New York: David McKay Co., 1957; Vance O. Packard. *The Status Seekers.* New York: David McKay Co., 1959; David Riesman. *The Lonely Crowd.* Garden City, New York: Doubleday & Co., 1953; David Riesman. *Individualism Reconsidered.* Garden City, New York: Doubleday & Co., 1955; Allen Wheelis. *The Quest for Identity.* New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1958; William H. Whyte. *The Organization Man.* Garden City, New York: Doubleday & Co., 1957.

A social scientist says, "It used to be higher pay for higher training. Now it's almost to the point of giving higher pay to compensate for uninteresting, routine jobs."

A fund raiser says, "Something's wrong. People support my campaign for a new hospital in principle and yet the effort needed to raise the money is prodigious."

A professor says, "American society—private wealth, public squalor."

A worker on the night shift says, "This is my moon-lighting job. My regular job is only 32 hours a week. I can't bear sitting around doing nothing during all that free time. Besides, two pay checks are fine."

The owner of a grocery store says, "What's to become of the small business? They tell us that free enterprise is the American way of life. How can I compete with the supermarkets?"

They Say These Things Because . . .

Technology has forced more and more people to engage in jobs in which they have no intrinsic interest, thus leading to the attitude that work is a means to something else and something to be "gotten-over" quickly.

Technology has produced a shorter working day for many with a consequent increase in leisure time.

Technology has placed greater and greater wealth into private hands, making it difficult to support social enterprises. Individuals are relatively free to amass personal wealth, but money for schools, parks and slum clearance is often difficult to obtain.

Technology and American capitalism have produced big labor, big business, big markets, and big advertising with the subsequent decline of individual enterprise.

What should be the school's role in helping to balance the need for greater productivity with the need for clarifying and meeting more important goals of life?

2. *Faster and relatively cheaper means of transportation facilitate quick and easy movement, and encourage contacts with people of differing customs and values; mass media permit instantaneous dissemination of ideas and knowledge to millions.*

But . . .

A mayor says, "Fifty percent of the people in town are newcomers within the past five years. Good community leaders are harder to find now because newcomers do not have the roots necessary for good leadership."

A school principal says, "It takes months for some students to adjust to a new school. When a student has made several moves, the continuity of learning is likely to be broken. This makes it difficult for children, teachers and parents."

A commuter says, "I spend two hours a day on this crowded train so that I can live in the crowded suburbs where my kids go to an overcrowded school. What a rat race! Something's wrong somewhere."

A conservative voter says, "It's like I always said. Government is getting bigger and bigger. Socialism is no longer creeping, it's running. Put government back in the hands of the people, say I, where we can have a voice in it."

A radio announcer says, "Cars will be lower-slung this year; there will be more chrome on front and rear; and on two models, rear fenders will flare upwards."

A television announcer says, "Nine out of ten doctors recommended Barsin."

They Say These Things Because . . .

The physical mobility of Americans is evidenced by the fact that 25,000 people a day move to new addresses. Lack of community roots means less civic pride, less community leadership, and less sense of identity.

The move from the farm to the city and from the city to the suburbs creates unprecedented pressures on housing, transportation and school facilities.

Growing populations, shifting populations, and increasing complexity of life necessitate bigger and more centralized government with the consequent loss of local autonomy and ability of individuals to act.

Mass media, controlled almost exclusively by business interests, have been directed toward making people want products and to make them keep buying through planned obsolescence.

Mass media permit the instantaneous dissemination of ideas to large numbers of people, but increase the danger of conformity of thought, manipulation of information by a few, and deliberate misuse of precise language.

What should be the school's role in helping to balance the need for better transportation, better communication and more centralized services with the need for more local autonomy and for a sense of individuality?

3. *Never before have there been available such quantities of food, luxury goods, sporting equipment and clothing within the reach of a large majority of people.*

But . . .

A consumer says, "As a child I was taught that thrift is a virtue and that a penny saved is a penny earned. But somehow every pay day almost the entire check goes for various payments on things we have bought on time. Everyone I know is in the same boat."

A minister says, "Yes, church enrollment is up but I get the feeling that people are here more for the social values and less for the spiritual ones."

A sociologist says, "There is considerable evidence that Americans are wasting large amounts of time, money and mental health in a search for the symbols that produce status."

A worker says, "We never had it so good—new car, new washing machine, new suit."

A college student says, "My classmates are looking for courses that will lead to jobs that pay. All they seem to want is a split-level home in the suburbs, a wife who has supper on the table when they come home, and membership in the local golf club. What else is important in modern life? Where is America going? How can I decide upon something worthwhile to do in life?"

A judge says, "Juvenile delinquency rates appear to be rising; divorce rates are increasing as well as the incidence of abandonment, desertion and illegitimacy."

A housewife says, "They make things so complicated for us these days. I'd like to be let alone to bring up my children my own way, using plain common sense without psychiatrists or experts telling me what I should do."

A father says, "What has become of the simple moral virtues that we grew up with? In those days lying was lying, stealing was stealing, and family activities took precedence over everything else."

They Say These Things Because . . .

The increase in installment buying and buying on credit is producing a mortgaged culture.

Preoccupation with making "things" has in many areas of life resulted in a lack of interest in nonmaterial or intellectual aspects of life. "Things" have increasingly become ends.

Technology has increased the opportunities and aspirations for social mobility, thus producing large numbers of status seekers.

Pressures for conformity in ideas, customs and daily living derive from general insecurity and dehumanized daily living; mass media, mass products and mass markets; bigger and more centralized schools, churches and businesses; and the purchase of upper class status symbols by the lower classes.

Technology has placed in the hands of lower socioeconomic groups material things they never before possessed.

Complexity of a technological society has produced among many a neurosis characterized by feelings of bewilderment, helplessness and the need to conform.

The complexity of modern problems defies simple common sense solutions, making the individual more helpless and necessitating the help of groups or experts.

Increasing complexity of life, conflicting values, and availability of "things" make it increasingly difficult to substitute, for the old absolute goals and values in life, newer relative goals and values.

What should be the school's role in helping to balance the need for the material and the nonmaterial aspects of life?

4. *Due to jet travel, international television, far-flung news wire services, and communications satellites, the world is shrinking; it is becoming less and less possible for nations to withdraw into themselves.*

But . . .

A citizen says, "Foreign aid is like pouring money down a rat hole."

A worker says, "Cheap foreign goods must not be permitted to put American workers out of their jobs."

A resident of Asia says, "We will stay neutral in the cold war; we will obtain aid from East and West."

Congress says, "Government-surplus food shipped abroad must use American ships."

An eighth grader says, "How do you translate kilos into pounds, and pounds into British stones?"

A foreign service officer says, "How can we ship tractors to underdeveloped countries when there are few mechanics, small farms, low octane gas, and an attitude of fatalism among the people?"

A state representative says, "We are sovereign. We cannot delegate to some international body any authority that belongs to our national government."

They Say These Things Because . . .

The growing necessity for world trade brings sharply into focus the problems of trade between two countries of widely disparate living standards and labor costs.

The shrinking of distance between countries makes more plain the need for international standards of justice, trade, health, law and measurement.

A militant and competing ideology in Communism forces the United States to arm and to enter the economic and ideological struggle for the allegiance of noncommitted peoples of the world.

The increasing need for technical assistance abroad underscores the difficulty of cross-cultural borrowing of ideas and techniques.

What should be the school's role in helping to balance the need for one world and the need for local autonomy?

Social Forces and the School

Assumption 1. Schools are inextricably tied to a complex web of culture.

Man's institutions—the things that he makes, his ideals, beliefs, customs and characteristic ways of living—make up his culture. Although to most people the idea of the wholeness of culture seems logical, many people act as if this concept were not true. People are likely to say that juvenile delinquency is caused by the breakdown of the church, or that undisciplined schools are caused by John Dewey's philosophy, or that the divorce rate is caused by working mothers.

Such statements as these reflect a belief that parts of a culture are simple and atomistic and that there are simple causes and simple effects of human events. These people fail to perceive that there is a basic unity and wholeness to life. The man who carries to his job a compelling urge to make money above all else also takes this idea to his church and to his club. This idea will also help determine how he votes for local officeholders, what he buys in the store, how he raises his children, and what he does about his school. People make up institutions, and institutions therefore are interrelated and tied together by human ideas, values and customs.

A useful way to conceive of an interrelated culture is to think of a web or a fish net, the strands of which are composed of elastic material. The junctions of strands represent the various component parts of society—institutions, material things, ideals, customs and values. Each of these is connected directly or indirectly to every other center or component part in the culture. A strain or a pull on one strand distorts the shape of the net or web at the place of pressure, but also, to a diminishing degree, distorts all other parts of the configuration. Seen in this light, juvenile delinquency is caused by a large number of related parts in the society. Undisciplined schools and divorce rates are bound up in the web or fish net of culture, and a modification of these requires changes in the basic fabric of American society. The extraordinary difficulty of solving the problems of juvenile delinquency in a city testifies to the complexity of forces affecting this phenomenon.

Many of the attacks on education and the ascribing of blame for alleged failures of the educational system clearly reveal this naïveté about culture. Commager once wrote:

> Many of the failures we ascribe to contemporary education are in fact failures of our society as a whole. A society that is indifferent to its own heritage cannot expect schools to make good the differences. A society that slurs over fundamental principles and takes refuge in the superficial and the ephemeral cannot demand that its schools instruct in abiding moral values. A society proudly preoccupied with its own material accomplishments and well-being cannot fairly expect its schools to teach that the snug warmth of security is less meaningful than the bracing venture of freedom. In all of this, to reform our schools is first to reform ourselves.[1]

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[1] Henry Steele Commager. "Our Schools Have Kept Us Free." *Life*, October 16, 1950. (Copyright 1950, Time Inc.)

Some educators are also guilty of holding an oversimplified concept of society. When under attack, they argue and attempt to defend what actually may be a failure of society. Certainly, much of the responsibility for education is the educator's, but when he accepts the total burden, pushed onto his shoulders by determined critics, he may be loading himself down with the evils of society in general. Considerable time and energy are probably misplaced by educators who feel too guilty and spend too much time defending themselves against unrealistic criticisms.

Assumption 2. Powerful forces in American society are creating fundamental changes in American life.

This assumption will not be accepted by those who perceive social change in other ways. Some regard the changes presently taking place in society as superficial. Although surface changes do cause problems, say they, one must not be diverted from the basic nature of man's institutions and life. Others, disagreeing with the generalization, take the stand that although our society is in a period of change, this is in reality only a transition to a future society which will be more stable than that of the present. These persons talk about schools in transition. Transition refers to the process of moving from one place to another, from one stability to another stability. Still other persons will be unconcerned with this assumption because of a basic doubt that man can do anything about social change. Implicit in this attitude is a belief that social change is somehow predetermined, either by nature or by some other agency, and therefore man's lot is to make the best of whatever he finds in life.

Whitehead wrote:

> Our sociological theories, our political philosophy, our practical maxims of business, our political economy, and our doctrines of education, are derived from an unbroken tradition of great thinkers and of practical examples, from the age of Plato in the fifth century before Christ, to the end of the last century. The whole of this tradition is warped by the vicious assumption that each generation will live substantially amid the conditions governing the lives of its fathers and will transmit those conditions to mould with equal force the lives of its children.
>
> We are living in the first period of human history for which this assumption is false. . . . The note of recurrence dominates the wisdom of the past, and still persists in many forms even where explicitly the fallacy of its modern application is admitted. The point is that in the past the time-span of important change was considerably longer than that of a single human life. Thus mankind was trained to adapt itself to fixed conditions. But today this time-span is considerably shorter than that of human life, and accordingly our training must prepare individuals to face a novelty of conditions.[3]

[3] Alfred N. Whitehead. "Introduction." In: Wallace B. Donham. *Business Adrift*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1931. p. xviii-xix. (Reprinted by permission.)

In times of pervasive social change the web of culture becomes badly distorted and out of balance. One aspect of the culture undergoes a change. Since this aspect is tied to the whole culture, a pulling and distention take place. An understanding of social lag, in which one aspect of the culture, usually a material aspect, gets ahead of and causes a discrepancy in or a contradiction among other aspects of culture, is still lacking. The many persons who hold an oversimplified picture of culture fail to realize that change and the consequent strains manifest themselves in terms of human pressures and tensions. The result is a bewilderment and a confusion about contradictions, changing of standards, and imbalances in society. The causes of these confusions are seldom perceived.

Margaret Mead writes:

> The culture of each people is a living unity in the sense that a change in any one aspect will have repercussions in other aspects. This is true even in those cultures which, while in the process of very rapid change, are torn by conflicts and contradictions.
>
> As each human individual embodies the culture through which he lives, discrepancies, inconsistencies, different rates of change of parts of culture, will have their expression in the personality organization of the individuals who live in a changing culture.[3]

This bewilderment and tension in people are illustrated in the opening section of this chapter.

By far the greatest number of references to change in current writing describe the things that have changed—new products on the market, new means of transportation and communication, new institutions, and the like. Only a small minority of references to change deal with the deep social forces which have produced these things or the imbalances created in society. Our society is still so unused to examining the process of change that most writers still refer to symptoms rather than to the underlying causes. We have become so enamoured with our new highways, our new jet planes, and our new color television that we have not seriously attempted to discover the effects that these new inventions have on people. It is these forces operating on people, these social trends as they affect mankind, that are truly significant; curriculum balance cannot be considered unless we deal with these deeper aspects of culture.

It is necessary to digress at this point in order to examine more closely the basic reasons for culture and cultural change.

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[3] Margaret Mead, editor. *Cultural Patterns and Technical Change; a Manual.* Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 1953. p. 288.

Society and Human Wants

Many people assume, erroneously of course, that culture simply exists by itself, that it is self-determined and that man must adjust to it. The behavioral science of cultural anthropology throws considerable light on the reasons for the development of various aspects of culture. People create institutions, usually over long periods of time, to satisfy their needs, desires and aspirations. One of the important tasks of cultural anthropologists is to identify the needs, desires and aspirations that are common to mankind. These can provide vast insight into the causes of man's behavior as he lives within his culture. These human wants have been expressed in different ways. One such list is as follows:

1. Most people do not want to be hungry; they cherish the value of sufficient nourishment.
2. Most people do not want to be cold or ragged; they cherish the value of adequate dress.
3. Most people do not want uncontrolled exposure, either to the elements or to people; they cherish the value of shelter and privacy.
4. Most people do not want celibacy; they cherish the value of sexual expression.
5. Most people do not want illness; they cherish the value of physiological and mental health.
6. Most people do not want chronic economic insecurity; they cherish the value of steady work, steady income.
7. Most people do not want loneliness; they cherish the value of companionship, mutual devotion, belongingness.
8. Most people do not want indifference; they cherish the value of recognition, appreciation, status.
9. Most people do not want constant monotony, routine, or drudgery; they cherish the value of novelty, curiosity, variation, recreation, adventure, growth, creativity.
10. Most people do not want ignorance; they cherish the value of literacy, skill, information.
11. Most people do not want to be continually dominated; they cherish the value of participation, sharing.
12. Most people do not want bewilderment; they cherish the value of fairly immediate meaning, significance, order, direction.[4]

If these needs cut across most cultures for most people, then the differences in cultures throughout the world can be explained in part by the different means available in different places to satisfy these needs. The African Kalihari tribes and New Yorkers presumably have basic human wants that are somewhat similar, even though the former tribes are living now in a state of civilization already passed through by the New Yorkers' ancestors tens of thousands of years ago. The astounding differences in what each group has available to satisfy these basic wants help to explain the differences in culture. The idea that culture is determined largely by man's attempts to satisfy his basic needs by whatever he finds in his environment is a concept of inestimable value in interpreting other cultures, international relations, and the behavior of people in other lands. This concept can also throw light on the causes of behavior in our own society.

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[4] Theodore Brameld. *Toward a Reconstructed Philosophy of Education*. New York: The Dryden Press, 1956. p. 115-16. (By permission, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., copyright 1956.)

This suggests a new look at one of the goals of education in American society, "The purpose of education is to transmit the culture." If culture is conceived as the composite attempt of a people to satisfy basic needs, then the school's role is to transmit to the young that society's accumulation of best ways of satisfying these needs. By making explicit the values or needs toward which society has always been more or less unconsciously moving, the people might at long last state with authority and conviction that the goals of education in its broad sense should be the fullest satisfaction of these needs.

Society and Change

Of great importance to an understanding of social forces in American life today is some insight into the basic causes of social change. The cultural anthropologist provides a clue as to why man changes his culture. The basic list of human wants outlined suggests the motivations for most aspects of human behavior. Social change can then be explained in terms of man's changing ability and disposition to satisfy these wants. In primitive, static societies the means for achieving these needs have become stabilized throughout the years. When the ability to improve his life suddenly becomes greater, man usually makes new and vigorous attempts to do so. Thus, social change can be understood as the product of a new means discovered by man for satisfying his wants.

Not necessity alone, but necessity plus knowledge, is the mother of invention. The discovery of fire, and the great inventions of history, such as farming and printing, have produced tremendous changes in man's life. These were new and revolutionary means, better means, for meeting the basic desires of humanity. Unquestionably, the most important discovery in man's life has been the formulation of the scientific method and its application to the natural world. Armed with this discovery, man has found the means to satisfy his basic needs as never before. No scientist today can see a termination point or a diminishing of the discoveries in science and their application to technology. Armed with this Aladdin's lamp, and motivated by basic needs, man will continue to induce social change for the foreseeable future. There is no turning back. There is no transition to another static society, and in a strict sense, no stabilizing of the present one. Man's universal needs are too strong for this, and the means to satisfy these wants are too powerful and effective for any kind of moratorium on inventions to take place.

Change, then, at least in the foreseeable future, appears inevitable. However, the needs of people are varied and complex, and are also difficult to express. Since most social change takes place without forethought and planning, the consequent effects on human beings are usually unexpected and confusing. This is the dilemma of social lag. Such a lag is the problem of a society whose member parts are changing at such a rate that the institutions set up to serve its needs can no longer adequately do so.

In the midst of unparalleled opulence in the United States we have a surprising number of undernourished, poorly clothed, delinquent, bored and thwarted people. To the extent that a society is fractured, distended and pulled by social change and social lag, its institutions will fail to serve the basic needs of its citizens, a process that is automatically cared for in a static society.

What of the role of the school? One function of education, both formal and informal, is to transmit the culture, but what culture? The changing culture? The unchanging culture? The social lag? This is a critical dilemma of schools today, and without a doubt is the central issue underlying controversies and criticisms of education.

Assumption 3. The school has some countervailing power to redirect, to influence, or to blunt the forces of society and thereby deliberately influence the course of changing culture.

The conception of education as the process by which society transmits its culture to the young suggests a clear possibility. Schools, in process of such transmission, can alter and modify what is transmitted. In a stable society, in which there is wide agreement concerning values, customs and ways of living, there is little tolerance for manipulating the process of transmission. In earlier times, this was as it should have been, for in the long run a society devises institutions, laws and customs that best meet the needs of its people. However, the educational institution in a rapidly changing society is forced to decide what aspects of culture to transmit. This decision is so controversial that it is small wonder that in a changing culture schooling becomes the center of raging controversies. John Dewey once wrote:

> Ours is the responsibility of conserving, transmitting, rectifying and expanding the heritage of values we have received that those who come after us may receive it more solid and secure, more widely accessible, and more generously shared than we have received it.[5]

Who is to determine what is conserved, what is transmitted, what is rectified and in what manner, and what is expanded and to what extent? These are inevitable decisions that must be faced by schools in changing societies. Many educators are unaccustomed to doing more than transmit the skills and knowledges of the cultural heritage. They seek to transmit only those things which a majority of people agree are important to transmit, leaving untouched those areas that are controversial. This search for the lowest common denominator of public opinion on what shall be taught may well explain a frequent lack of clear-cut goals, and the difficulty of enforcing consistent discipline in the face of this lack.

In this dilemma, it is not surprising to find educators concentrating upon more immediate goals or upon goals that actually are means to more distant aims. Faced with the confusion of ends and means, immediate and distant goals, and contrary goals as proposed by various groups of people, it is small wonder that so many school people fall back upon the goal of mental discipline or the development of a sharpened, disciplined mind ready to solve whatever problem a changing society presents.

To what extent then can a school exert its own pull upon the web of culture? Because of its central role in society, the activities of schools are carefully scrutinized and chaperoned, especially by a stable society. In periods of change, however, people are divided and uncertain about what schools should do. This confusion and subsequent questing for direction goes on in all of man's institutions. Schools in moving societies have some freedom to experiment, some freedom to rectify, and some freedom to expand the heritage of values. This freedom cannot be sought until a careful study is made of the society. John Dewey wrote:

> Since changes are going on anyway, the great thing is to learn enough about them so that we may be able to lay hold of them and turn them in the direction of our desires. Conditions and events are neither to be fled from nor passively

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[5] John Dewey. *A Common Faith*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1934. p. 87.

acquiesced in; they are to be utilized and directed. They are either obstacles to our ends or else means for their accomplishment.[8]

Studying social forces in order to decide how to exert control leads to a paradox. The history of natural science reveals that as man discovered the principles under which nature seemed to operate, he gradually came to realize that the world was an ordered one. This apparent limitation of his freedom was somewhat relieved when man discovered that the investigation of the principles of nature showed how he could manipulate these for his own purposes. If he could describe the principle, then he could predict, and prediction could lead to control.

As behavioral scientists discover generalizations, principles and theories governing man's social behavior, the more evidence they have that human events and affairs are also a part of an ordered world. This apparent denial of free will in reality opens up unlimited avenues of freedom if only man can examine, predict and ultimately control to a certain extent human affairs.

Those who are most optimistic about the rapidly expanding discoveries in the behavioral sciences derive their optimism from the vision of a more carefully balanced and directed society that would serve man in the best way possible as he works toward his goals. The ability of man to transcend his culture and to bring countervailing power against selected social forces rests entirely upon his ability to understand, find order, and therefore make predictions regarding the social forces around him. As in the field of the natural sciences, this process of study is not a simple one and requires the utmost in self-discipline, rigorous study and thought.

It would seem that this is the only way by which man can secure any measure of freedom from the almost overwhelming web of culture—freedom in which he can seek in better and better ways the satisfaction of his needs. A powerful and all encompassing goal of education now emerges. This goal is freedom to transcend to some degree the influences and forces of society so that the individual may pursue for himself the good life. This power to countervail against social pressures and transcend the web of culture requires constant study of society. It would seem, however, that there could be no more worthwhile goal for schools than to develop power to countervail in order to produce some measure of freedom for the individual.

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[8] John Dewey. *Reconstruction in Philosophy.* Boston: Beacon Press, 1950. p. 102.

Implications for the School

What should be the role of the school in helping to correct the imbalances created by a rapidly changing society? What should be the school's role in helping to balance the need for more productivity with the need for clarifying more important goals of life; between the need for better transportation, communication and more centralized services with the need for more local autonomy and sense of individuality; between the need for material aspects of life and the need for the nonmaterial aspects of life; between the need for one world and the need for local autonomy?

This chapter has held that the school possesses the potential power to exert some influence upon social forces in order to establish a balance whereby the greatest number of human wants are satisfied for the greatest number of people. The school can produce and apply this power indirectly through the students or it can apply power directly.

Producing Power Among Students

1. The most fundamental aspect of this search for power is the comprehensive and deliberate study of society and social forces. In elementary education the school can begin to make explicit the nature of man's human wants and needs and how our society, with its unique resources, has attempted to satisfy these wants. The fact of change and social lag is relatively simple to understand in its less complex aspects. In secondary education many of the more difficult areas can be examined, especially those involving many conflicting values.

2. Schools can reorient their approach to subject matter so that a clear understanding of man in his society emerges. The study of history does not often result in a clear understanding of man's attempts, his successes and his failures to satisfy his human wants. Seldom do high school students, let alone elementary school students, get a chance to speculate upon the human meaning of historical events. Literature is not always taught from the standpoint of attempting to understand better man's own human nature and human culture through the experience of others. Science classes do not often stress the meaning of the scientific method or give students an appreciation of the fantastic power unleashed by man when he discovered the method of science. Nor do many students understand the process by which men of science in the past laboriously arrived at scientific generalizations so glibly presented in texts. Few students of art, music, industrial arts, home economics, creative

writing, and physical education are taught the significance of man's basic need to create in order to be himself and how creativity may suffer in a technological society.

A curriculum designed to teach these things effectively would of necessity be a coordinated and integrated type of curriculum because of the difficulty of studying man and his web of culture in fragments.

3. A school can emphasize throughout its program the study of goals—personal goals, community goals, the goals of the nation, and world goals. This study of values, for goals imply values, is singularly absent from the curriculum of schools today. Balancing of social forces in the curriculum requires the most careful decision about a priority of values, for in reality the conflict of social forces is a conflict of values. With the study of values can also come a search for means to achieve goals. A clear understanding of the purposes of studying an assignment, working on a unit, or taking a course would help to establish this ends-means relationship.

4. At more advanced levels, schools can introduce to students the new, expanding behavioral sciences. Introduction to psychology, sociology, cultural anthropology, and social psychology cannot be postponed until college. Material appropriate to the maturity level of high school students can be used, but throughout each study would appear the fundamental understanding that these new sciences are rapidly uncovering important generalizations about how man acts under various circumstances and that if he can learn enough about these he can hope to control his destiny.

5. Throughout the school years students can be taught the various ways in which man has created his society and the ways in which he has been able to modify it. Upon graduation each student should possess a realistic picture, both of how powerful he is and also of his limitations. For those areas in which he can be powerful, he must know the methods of applying this power. He must know the avenues open to him to influence opinion, and how to organize his own knowledge and his own activities so that he can be effective in working toward his goals.

Producing Power in the Community

1. The school can apply direct power in the lives of its students. As a deliberate policy, agreed upon after careful study, the school can, for example, counterbalance some of the pressures for conformity in American life. This could involve greater emphasis upon creative work, independent thinking, critical judgment, and the development of strength to be the lone dissenting "nay" vote in homeroom meetings. In opposition

to the fast and confused pace of American life, which tends to send children to school tense and hurried, the school can attempt to provide a haven in which some of the conflict and tension can be resolved. In a materialistic society a special, compensating emphasis can be placed upon nonmaterial goals of life.

2. The school can bring its countervailing power directly into the community. This has been accomplished in many schools, but seldom deliberately and with sustained effort. Under school leadership, projects involving parents and students can lessen the distance between voter and elected through "get out the vote" campaigns and discussion of the issues. Projects for planning youth activities and projects for community beautification are examples of ways in which schools can exert their influence in reinforcing certain social trends and countervailing against others.

In summary, there are two steps in counterbalancing the social forces impinging upon the school. The first is to produce the power, which in this case is the knowledge that derives from the disciplined and rigorous study of the society. Armed with this knowledge the school can, either through its students or directly, take a second step, which is to bring to bear upon society the power it possesses. The alternative to this process is surrender to the web of culture and the surrender of much freedom of action. If, however, the search for the good life requires more freedom with which to seek goals directly, then the production of countervailing power is imperative.

CHAPTER THREE

Values in Curriculum Decision Making

SAMUEL EVERETT

THE PEOPLES of the world are now working out their destiny in a dynamic global setting. Modern technology has brought nations closer together in time and space. Backward peoples are seeking their political as well as their economic freedom. The ideology of communism challenges the West. The new scientific explosion, embracing electronics, atomic energy and automation, has uncovered hitherto undreamed of opportunities to improve the conditions of human life. We are living with the ever-present danger that through design or miscalculation the greater part of the human race might be destroyed.

Major uncertainties regarding the explicit nature of these world forces and how they should be met at home and abroad are causing the American people to reappraise their social institutions. Under such conditions it is inevitable that the American educational institutions which prepare children and youth to meet adult problems should be on the frontier of controversy.

Few informed citizens of the United States can doubt that in the 1960's we are looking critically at our schools.[1] People are asking what knowledge, skills and moral values are being taught and whether or not traditional moral commitments are adequate in the mid-twentieth century. They are wondering whether education is adequate for the more troubled and increasingly scientific world of today.

Values Tested by Experience

This chapter will deal with a number of historical values which Americans have long espoused. In the educational profession basic purposes have been stated in many different ways. The Educational Policies Commission's volume, *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools*, reaffirms our democratic commitments.[2] Respect for the individual person is believed by some to encompass all aspects of the democratic faith. Others prefer to enumerate a number of values which are inherent in the concept of *respect.*

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[1] C. Winfield Scott, Clyde M. Hill and Hobert W. Burns. *The Great Debate: Our Schools in Crisis*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959.

The Yearbook Committee reaffirms faith in certain historical values as essential to our way of life in the new space age. The impact of world events upon these values is recognized. Basic questions regarding desirable policy are raised which must be thoroughly appraised if we are to make intelligent decisions in a democracy. The historical approach is used in the analysis.

The authors of this yearbook believe it is essential to accept and state a number of basic democratic purposes which may serve as a guide in policy making and in the implementation of decisions. These values are presented here as five in number.

1. *Self-reliance, a conviction that people can accomplish whatever they seek to accomplish, has long been a value highly esteemed by Americans.*

Conditions of life on the American continent have long promoted self-confidence. An untamed wilderness early called forth resourcefulness and courage as settlers moved forward. The sight of new horizons, new land open for the taking, excited the human spirit to great achievements and even greater expectations. New communities and states were built.

In the nineteenth century a liberal policy brought millions of immigrants to the United States. These newcomers joined in the successful march across the continent and in the building of a new industrial empire which was to challenge and surpass that of any other nation. At the end of the nineteenth century all dreams of Americans seemed possible of realization.

The quality of self-reliance in our people was not lessened by the success of American arms on the battlefields of two world wars. Use of the atomic bomb at Hiroshima and Nagasaki appeared to demonstrate American supremacy conclusively. Ours had become the leading military, financial and industrial power in the world.

America, and Americans, continued to seem invincible. The Marshall Plan saved Europe. Communism was contained, if not driven back. We were not yet aware that success in diplomacy following military victory is essential. It had not become obvious that Soviet Russia was moving aggressively onto the world scene to challenge all American achievements and American values.

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[2] National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools.* Washington, D.C.: the Commission, 1951.

During the nineteenth century and the first half of the twentieth century success had also seemed to crown efforts in American education. A free public school system had been built. The American high school had become the "people's college." A rapidly increasing percentage of youth was attending both public and private higher institutions. Research in the teaching of necessary skills in public schools and scholarly study in many higher institutions were respectable in both quality and quantity.

Yet, the buoyant self-reliance so characteristically American and so highly valued was to suffer many rude shocks which have brought widespread self-distrust.[3] Although America won the war with Japan, China was lost. Lack of complete victory in Korea, without a national willingness to bear the costs required for such a victory, was a severe blow in the Far East. Faced by frustrations, many people sought easy and superficial explanations. It was said that leaders of government had been stupid or worse. It was believed by many that communists were entrenched in government agencies and in colleges and universities. Liberal ideas and the impartial search for truth in dealing with the militant communism of the U.S.S.R. in Europe, and more recently in the Middle East, further seemed to undermine American self-confidence.

But the crowning blow to the self-reliance of Americans came with Soviet victories in atomic research, space exploration and long-range ballistic missiles. Americans at last realized that perhaps we cannot always be first, but we still find it difficult to believe that the will to do is not always equated with ability to perform.

The very conditions of life and work in our new industrial society have also limited conceptions of the self and of what the individual may achieve.[4] Assembly lines and automation do not contribute to the dignity of the individual worker. Huge industrial combines give work to many but limit small business opportunities. Mass media tend to make us think and act alike. The impersonality of life in great cities does not make distinctive individuality easy. Yet the achievement of self-reliant personalities remains as important as ever to the individual and to our future development as a nation.

Difficulties are readily apparent, and their nature determines the problems which must be met. However, opportunities are just as real. America is a reservoir of fertile ideas, skilled manpower and great productive resources. By using all our assets wisely we can lead the way to the good and abundant life, both for ourselves and for the other peoples of the world.

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[3] Emmet John Hughes. *America the Vincible*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday & Co., 1959.

[4] William H. Whyte, Jr. *The Organization Man*. New York: Simon & Shuster, 1956.

This should be a time for reappraisal, not for irresponsible and uninformed attacks upon established institutions such as the schools. Emotionalized attacks on schools, as upon government, spread fear, suspicion and distrust. In reconsidering curricula and educational programs we greatly need the self-assurance that will lead us to depart from conventional practice and to try out new ideas at all educational levels. We must re-establish the belief in opportunities for success, and be confident that lay citizens, members of boards of education, and professional educators can work together, as in the past, to improve the schools. We can continue here, as in other areas, to advance from strength to strength.

2. *In American society the people are sovereign.*

As every schoolboy knows, freedom from a foreign power was secured during the American Revolution. The sovereignty of the citizens of the United States is today both a predominant fact and a much-prized value. Vested economic interests and other power centers may predominate for a time but are still subject to the popular will. The sovereignty of the common man has been achieved by a long struggle against established institutions and special interests. It is a struggle which still continues.

The early immigrants to the New World brought with them aristocratic conceptions of class rule as well as a desire for freedom of the individual to choose his own government, his own religion and his own way of life.

In the colonial period, aristocratic institutions and ideas were in the ascendancy under British governors, large land owners in the southern and middle colonies, and the religious and commercial leaders of New England. In this period, and extending into the nineteenth century, the influence of an aristocratic society was clearly seen in the employment of tutors by southern planters for their own children, in contrast with the establishment of "charity" or "pauper" schools for the poor. In the middle colonies, and in New England, select private schools were developed for the few who could pay for an education which trained a small number to take their "rightful place of leadership."

In early colonial days examples of the coming rise to power of the people were not wanting. Religious dissenters broke with established doctrine. The common man, along with captains of industry and commerce, was restive under a foreign yoke and finally rose in protest. Free public elementary schools were developed which were to enlighten the masses and foster self-rule. In education, too, experiments with local control by the citizenry served as forerunners of policy making by local and state boards of education.

Many factors in the New World were favorable to the achievement of popular sovereignty.[5] Thousands, and later millions, of people came to the New World to escape the established authority of church and state. Frontier conditions of life were conducive to the spread of democratic ideas. The American Revolution was largely won by the people. The Bill of Rights reflected this atmosphere by guaranteeing the freedoms of representative government, religious choice, and personal liberty which had formerly been denied. These rights were embedded in the federal Constitution and copied in state constitutions.

The nineteenth century saw a tremendous development in the power of the people to achieve control of their own affairs. The Jacksonian administrations were the first in which the interests of the common man were clearly foremost at the national level. Amendments to the United States Constitution have mirrored changes in society. They represent in major degree guarantees and extensions of the people's power to determine their own destiny. Slavery was abolished. The rights of citizens were defined and guaranteed. Apportionment of representatives and direct election of senators were provided. Suffrage for Negroes and for women greatly enlarged the electorate, although the actual freedom of Negroes to vote in all sections of the country is still to be realized.

The rise of free public schools in American communities, with policy determined by representatives chosen by the people, has paralleled democratic developments in the nation at large. The names of Horace Mann and Henry Barnard are associated with this development. Such leaders were aided by democratic forces in all areas. The battles to establish publicly supported schools everywhere, to free them from religious domination, to give more adequate support through public taxation, to set up state and local boards of education, and to develop state administrative systems of education are among the many results of popular sovereignty.

American educational institutions are basically representative in the sense that the people in local communities control policy. No national authority has the constitutional power to control education. School boards which determine policy are directly elected or chosen by elected representatives of the people. Such practice is in accord with the national spirit. In local communities, as in legislative assemblies in which decisions are made by the people's representatives, individuals and organized groups have a right to speak out and to seek to influence school practice.

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[5] Alexis De Tocqueville. *Democracy in America*. Vol. I. (First published in Paris, 1835.) New York: Vintage Books, 1954.

In the market place of ideas in education, as in other areas, it is important that people are free to speak. It is equally important, if the popular will is to prevail, that all who are concerned with the perpetuation of public schools carefully scrutinize the interests of participants in any controversy affecting them.

Are critics so frightened by the accomplishments of the U.S.S.R. that they are incapable of informed and intelligent appraisal? Are they persons who wish to limit public expenditures to the detriment of public services—in this case the education of children and youth? Is opposition led by citizens who first of all seek personal prestige? Do critics desire to promote restrictive religious, racial or economic interests? Are they essentially *status quo* defenders of present educational procedures?

In every community it is important to know the questions which disturb the parents who sincerely believe in free public education. Is there a belief that the basic skills are being inadequately taught? Do parents believe that the content or subject matter does not sufficiently challenge able children and youth; that counseling services are too limited; that funds are not being carefully administered; that planning for future development is fragmentary or ill advised? Do both friends and hostile critics know what the schools are really doing?

In education the people are sovereign. It is important that controversy deal with pertinent facts and basic issues if decisions are to be wisely made.

3. *Freedom of every individual to develop to his optimum potential is an accepted American ideal.*

Concern for the common man and for the creation of conditions favorable to his advancement are primary requisites in a society in which the people are sovereign. Every child has the right to advancement and need not become a baker, a mechanic or an unskilled laborer because his father was. Among our early leaders, Thomas Jefferson clearly saw the relation of an educated citizenry to the success of a democratic state. He worked unstintingly for public institutions that would educate every individual.

From earliest colonial days America has been a land of opportunity. The sentiment,

> Give me your tired, your poor,
> Your huddled masses yearning to be free,"[*]

is deeply embedded in the American dream. In this new land millions have found opportunity to increase their worldly goods; to think and speak as they like; to grow morally, emotionally and socially; to obtain an education for themselves and their children; and to do these things unhampered by rules and regulations imposed by a ruling class.

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[*] First two lines of the inscription by Emma Lazarus which appears on the Statue of Liberty.

As in the case of self-reliance and the sovereignty of the people, the basic conditions of life have for generations been unusually favorable to self-improvement. Opportunity for developing a virgin continent and the grasping of such opportunities by millions of immigrants and their progeny have led with considerable justice to the designation of America as a "land of opportunity."

The philosophic doctrine of the rights of man as epitomized in the Declaration of Independence and in the United States Constitution gave sanction to individual development. Religious doctrines preaching the equality of all men before God have given moral support to the importance and the responsibility of the individual.

Opportunity for optimum growth for every person in America was slow in coming and even today has not been achieved by all. The early colonists and the common people in the nineteenth century repeatedly had to contend for true representative government. Both women and Negroes have a long history in their struggle to attain equality of political opportunity with white males. Many rural areas and whole sections of the country do not furnish equal opportunity for self-development when compared to more favored situations. Nor are poor housing and congested living conditions in our great cities conducive to equality of opportunity. Well-to-do families and more affluent communities offer more advantages for self-development. However, the struggle to establish conditions favorable to equal opportunity takes place in state and national legislative bodies, in churches, and in a myriad of economic and social organizations. Most of all, this struggle goes on in the schools.

The American free public school is the primary institution to which the people have given the task of promoting the optimum growth of every American boy and girl. In earlier days when financial resources were comparatively meager, schools limited their activities to teaching writing, reading, spelling, learning how to figure, and something of the history of our country. As resources have increased and primitive conditions have given way to a more mature society, opportunities for self-development in the schools have increased.

Rich curricula, which include music and art along with student activities, promoting many types of interests, have largely replaced the limited offerings of an earlier age. Few would claim that present school programs are perfect or that they cannot be improved. Many situations exist in which economic and social conditions make democratic education difficult. However, most members of school boards, teachers and administrators have honestly tried to do the best they could for every child.

An accepted purpose of the public school, as stated or implied in innumerable publications of local boards of education and state educational authorities, is that of full personality development. This includes the intellectual, moral, esthetic, social, emotional and physical growth of all children and youth. In higher institutions intellectual development is given major priority. But here, too, other aspects of human personality are not neglected. Indeed, some visiting educators from other lands who have a conception of education that is largely confined to an intellectual elite are highly critical of American colleges and universities which furnish so many avenues for growth.

In most European countries, class inequalities are reflected in educational institutions, in which a great majority of children and youth do not have equal opportunities for full self-development. Limits are set both by separate institutions and widely diverging curricula for similar age groups.

In recent years the curricula of elementary schools abroad have been enriched, but in most places not to the same extent as have American schools with their broader social purposes. It is in the secondary and higher education of such countries as England, Germany and France that the contrast is greatest. There youth are segregated according to ability with the finest opportunities provided for a relatively small percentage of the population in select grammar schools, gymnasia and lycées.

American educators may be able to benefit through a study of the quality of European education at particular levels or in specific respects. However, narrow class conceptions are not congenial to the tenor or purpose of American society. Ours is a social and educational tradition which emphasizes the freedom of each individual to seek a well-rounded education. It is the responsibility of duly constituted school boards to see that such opportunity is available.

The distinctly American ideal of the optimum development of every individual is under serious attack today. Some critics would substitute in authoritarian ways the manpower needs of the state for a sensitive perception of the individual needs of boys and girls. The requirement that *all* high school youth, regardless of ability and aptitude, should take more mathematics and science courses illustrates insensitivity to the worth of the individual. The implied demand that *all* youth be subjected to a stiff academic curriculum or "get out" of school is another case in point.

As has already been indicated, motives of fear which make men irrational and self-interest which limits their vision are responsible for a portion of the criticisms leveled at public schools. Such motivations should be exposed for all to see. It is also true that dissatisfactions emanate from individual parents, representatives of parent-teacher associations, and some lay citizens who may sincerely believe in public education but are unclear as to the social values the schools are intended to promote. Others may accept these values, but believe there are valid reasons for criticism.

All citizens should be kept informed by those in charge of public educational institutions as to what the schools are doing, and why. In the American system it is only through the best thinking of all concerned that weaknesses may be remedied and new opportunities made available that promote the optimum development of every child in public institutions of learning.

4. *Responsibility of the individual for the common good is an accepted democratic ideal.*

In every society decisions are made regarding the nature of the common good. To what and to whom should citizens give their allegiance and support? The decision may involve allegiance to a king, a privileged class, the state as an institution, the canons of a religious faith, or a democratic social order in which every person is important and the people are sovereign. Decision in the United States has been in favor of the welfare and political power of the common man.

On the North American continent the idea of the social responsibility of the individual person has had an interesting history. During the colonial period religious leaders in some situations were accepted as arbiters of what was good and proper. Allegiance to "the Crown," French or British, was maintained when people had a sense of responsibility for the support of established political authority. This was never seriously challenged in French territory.

In the American colonies allegiance to the British Crown was maintained by his Majesty's representatives as long as the colonists themselves had a sense of loyalty to British law and British governors. When the right of Parliament to enact laws and to establish prerogatives was first challenged, then flouted, and finally denied, the accepted reasons for law and order disappeared. A chaotic period followed until a new nation was founded, with the people giving their loyalty to their own duly constituted government.

Much of the political history of our country has revolved around the basic principles of freedom and responsibility. The substitution of individual and special interests for the general good is all too common. Deception in advertising and the insensitivity of some public servants in cases involving private and public interests are surface manifestations of basic conflicts.

Repercussions of conflicts of value have been seen and are now apparent in public education. Vested economic interests often seek to operate in the schools. Attempts range from nepotism and the granting of building contracts to specially-favored concerns to attempts to influence curriculum content through textbooks that place certain economic interests in a favorable light and fail to mention unfavorable material. Those interests favoring lower taxes sometimes seek to reduce or otherwise control school costs at the expense of the education of children.

The United States Constitution provides for the separation of church and state. This was followed by abolition of the teaching of religion in the public schools. The battle was fought and seemingly won in the past century. The principle that publicly financed educational institutions should not promote religious doctrine, despite many contradictory instances, now appears to have wide acceptance in theory and practice.

Released time for religious instruction has seemed to offer a solution which does not conflict with the principles of free public education. Shall books and other supplies of parochial schools be paid for by public taxation? Shall transportation and welfare provisions for children in parochial schools be paid out of the public treasury? The controversy in its basic form is whether or not citizens should be taxed to support religious teachings in which they do not believe. Such taxation would be a long step toward the kind of union of church and state that is still prevalent in certain European countries.

Less obvious preferential treatment of certain groups may be sought in the schools by people both inside and outside the educational profession. These persons would have us concentrate our major attention upon either "slow learners" or upon an "intellectual elite," at the expense of school programs that must be viewed in their entirety if everyone is to be given comparable opportunity. On this, as on all other questions, we must be responsible for the welfare of *all* children and young people.

The principle of local control which "reserves to the states respectively and to the people" the power to establish educational institutions has kept the power in decision making close to the people. This principle is in notable contrast to many educational systems abroad which hold that a central authority should make educational policy.

Perhaps at no point in educational practice do we see democratic principles more clearly involved or more often in conflict than in the location of authority. What power shall local boards of education have and what powers shall the states exercise? As the federal government passes legislation in support of education in the interests of national defense, the question of freedom of local agencies to determine policy is raised. The U.S. Supreme Court decision in 1954 regarding segregated schools similarly involved conflicting principles. Proposals that some national governmental agency, or some national professional group, should establish uniform curricula or other blanket requirements also involve both freedom and the general welfare. Dogmatic answers to such basic questions should not be made. Instead, it would seem wise to decide all such questions in the light of specific situations which involve both the well-being of the individual person and the general welfare.

Current proposals that many more children be "counseled" in the direction of specialization in mathematics and science, or in foreign languages, may in fact have widely different effects. If carried out with careful regard for individual preference and aptitude, results may be of great value to the nation.[7] However, indiscriminate and uninformed "counseling" can divert students from their real interests in other areas of the curriculum. It is true that we require more well-prepared manpower in the specified areas. Presumably we also continue to need businessmen, legislators, statesmen, scholars and artists in the building of a stronger America.

Certain educational practices by state and national governments may threaten the welfare of both the individual and the nation. The withdrawal by certain state legislatures of the right of individual communities to decide the school segregation question seems intended to perpetuate existing inequities. Such action may for a time preserve discriminatory practices, yet promote neither the individual nor the general welfare. Restrictions contingent upon the use of federal aid to education may be of such kind as to benefit both children and local communities. On the other hand they may restrict guaranteed personal liberties. For example, the inclusion of a clause in the National Defense Education Act of 1958 requiring that the recipient of a scholarship take an oath regarding his political belief was thought by many to be a dangerous assault upon personal freedom and responsibility for one's own actions.

All educational procedures and laws which may remove responsibility for decision making from the people at local levels should be carefully examined. Such proposals should be considered critically in terms of the existing situation, the conflicting values involved, and the results expected. The dangers of uniform educational practices determined by authorities considerably removed from the people are great. Advocated in the interests of the general welfare, such proposals often move in the direction of destroying the actual basis of welfare, namely, the responsibility of the individual person for maintaining such welfare.

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[7] National Education Association and other agencies. *Manpower and Education.* Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1956.

5. *A pragmatic approach to solving problems is espoused by Americans.*

In a very real and fundamental sense the values which have been stated have emerged from the conditions of life of the American people. Self-reliance of the common man was necessary to existence on the American frontier. Many communities were widely separated by geographic barriers from established church and political authority. Settlers had to decide for themselves major questions as these arose. The welfare of all people and not primarily of those in authority became important. Responsibility for the common good was a requirement for survival and not an abstract theoretical question.

Within settled colonial communities a similar process of breaking away from established institutions also took place. Merchants and large landowners chafed under rules limiting the sale and purchase of products. Both groups came to resist restrictions on the natural conditions of trade imposed in accordance with the principle of subservience of colonists to the mother country. Thus, in the colonial and revolutionary periods, conditions of life in the new land educated people to the desirability of democratic principles that would reflect these life conditions.

The Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States reflect the theoretical idea of the "natural rights of man," for those who created these documents were acquainted with the intellectual background of their time. There can be little doubt that it was the actual conditions of life which made the idea of natural rights seem desirable to both the common people and their leaders.

The pragmatic approach to the solution of problems challenges all theoretical assumptions. It seeks to lay them bare to the public view and takes into account the motivations of those who make proposals. It requires the collection of facts and relies upon these in the solution of difficulties. Different ways of dealing with problems are advocated and tried. Results are considered in terms of accepted purposes, and new beginnings made. This, we believe, is the method of intelligence which has been used in scientific experimentation, the building of a great industrial empire, the establishment and maintenance of honest government, and the conduct of the private lives of our citizens.

The method of intelligence requires that members of the education profession honestly face changes in the basic conditions under which the educational task is now being performed, for only then can we hope to implement adequately the historic values of American society. These changes are profound and affect every aspect of education.

Today the knowledge, concepts, values and motivations of children are molded by many hours spent listening to radio, and viewing movies and television. Through these technological inventions the young are being educated in the intricacy of machines, instruments of warfare, space travel, modern medicine, and crime. Westerns, along with mysteries, present murder and the sly dealings of human beings, as well as admirable concepts of justice and kindliness. World-wide vistas of travel, international affairs, and the rise of colonial peoples are also the common experience of television viewers. The elementary school, dealing as it does with the early formation of personality, particularly must take such experiences into account. Few can doubt that this necessitates many adjustments in elementary education.

New discoveries in the sciences, particularly in chemistry, physics and astronomy require a continuous rewriting of textbooks and courses of study. Extensive world travel, trade and communication make their impact upon the content and teaching of economics, political science, geography, history and anthropology. The founding of the United Nations, the rise of new nations to freedom and statehood, and growing numbers of new international bodies have a similar impact.

The new position of power of the United States among nations leads to world-wide moral, military and economic commitments. All have a bearing on the knowledge, concepts and attitudes promoted in educational institutions at all levels.

The danger of military attack by a Communist foe is real. The billions of dollars spent on defense are necessary. Enlightened American diplomacy is required. More specialized manpower in the interest of defense is needed. Science, mathematics and foreign language teaching are increasingly important in American society and in the schools.

The tremendous productivity of American industry makes possible amazing advances in material comforts and in leisure. These advances bring new dangers that our industrial civilization will concentrate increasingly on the enjoyment of material possessions at the expense of ethical standards and strength of character. The conditions of modern life and their effects upon young people are the concern of the school. They require fact finding and implementation of new content and procedures in educational institutions, to a degree as yet unrealized by lay citizens and many members of the education profession.

In most communities and in institutions of higher learning, the resources for the acquisition of new knowledge and for the implementation of findings in curricula are woefully inadequate. No other major enterprise in America suffers from such lack of funds to do research as does the education profession. Constantly rising costs for teachers' salaries, more classrooms, instructional aids, and general upkeep have priority over research funds. Communities are thought to be fortunate if they can barely keep ahead of immediate needs. Research is usually not considered to be one of these needs.

However, in spite of inadequate support, the education profession has begun to assemble a body of tested evidence. Studies have been made of childhood and adolescent development and of basic human needs. We now know a great deal concerning the conditions most favorable and least favorable to learning. Data are available on the interdependent relationship of emotional, social, physical and intellectual growth. Much has been learned regarding the varying abilities of school children. Content materials in skill subjects, such as reading and arithmetic, and the use of films, radio and television are being systematically tested but as yet in an inadequate number of situations. Achievements have been considerable. They could be easily doubled or tripled if adequate funds were made available.

It is in the American tradition in education, as in other aspects of our life, that new knowledge shall be sought and evaluated. American social values have themselves been tested by 250 years of experience. Proposals for educational change which are at variance with known facts, or which seek to modify established values, need especially thoughtful examination. Such proposals must be subjected to the same type of careful inquiry which has in other fields made America one of the most advanced countries of the world. Using the method of intelligence, educators have a responsibility always to seek new knowledge and new insights appropriate to the educational task. Resources adequate to the performance of the task are urgently needed.

Responsibilities of the Profession

The foregoing analysis has spelled out the fundamental nature of the traditional responsibility of American educators. It has been stated in terms of the preservation and extension of social values which are indigenous to America. Attention has been called to some of the ways in which these values are now being threatened and to the changing nature of society which basically conditions such values. Possible answers to moot questions have been explored and a number of desirable positions stated. It has been the intention throughout to sponsor certain positions on controversial problems which best seem to preserve accepted social values.

In current decision making, the education profession as a national group, and as individuals operating at state and local levels, must seek to fulfill traditional responsibilities.

When decision making does not rest in the hands of educators but in those of all citizens, as in the United States, the profession has a number of specific obligations which are characteristic of the American system:

1. We must always remain aware that in a democracy social change requires curriculum change. In the long run the people will not have it otherwise. Nor should we, as educators, seek to preserve practices inappropriate to living in modern society.
2. We must be aware that in times of rapid social change and of crisis there are inevitable clashes between such values as the concepts of freedom of the individual and the social good.
3. We must as professionals continually inform ourselves concerning the nature of conditions in society which affect social values and present new problems in teaching and learning.
4. We must continually keep policy making boards and citizens informed about what the schools are doing in the various aspects of the curriculum. Only through objective appraisal can policy be made intelligently.
5. We must educate the public in regard to tested facts bearing on the learning process which affect the well-being of children and youth.
6. We must inform boards of education and the general public regarding strengths and weaknesses in current school practice in the light of the needs of individuals and of society.
7. We must explore thoughtfully all proposed educational changes which appear to involve accepted social values.
8. We must recommend to policy making groups desirable changes in the light of accepted values and tested knowledge.

In 1961, and the years immediately ahead, the dangers now apparent to the continued development of free public education are in reality dangers faced by American society as a whole. The widespread concentration on individual gain rather than public good threatens the republic at many points. Numerous current criticisms of the schools are actually departures from traditional democratic values. Often such criticisms show distrust of the people's ability to decide educational questions for themselves. Numerous current criticisms indicate confusion regarding the values which are involved. Sometimes it is obvious that critics prefer to trust an intellectual elite rather than the people. Some advise a return to a form of union of church and state. Some prefer to substitute specialized education, which would narrowly train experts for industry and the state, for general education, which offers breadth of perspective and places a high valuation on the individual person. Still others, who might be aghast at comparable suggestions in industry or any other major social enterprise, advocate that common-sense notions of lay citizens be substituted for tested knowledge in the practical implementation of policy in the public schools.

Most of these questions have risen before. They must be dealt with again in the emerging 1960's. Differences of opinion are inherent in democratic institutions. The people, whether lay citizens or professionals, must be ever alert to discern arguments which, if followed, would destroy democratic values and democratic institutions. If, however, we would preserve historic democratic values in society and in education, it is imperative that we continue to search for more enlightened and appropriate ways by which to educate the young. In all situations we must seek to resolve differences in ways which will promote the well-being of the individual person and ensure the continuation of a free democratic society.

CHAPTER FOUR

Balance and the Problem of Purpose in Education

ROBERT S. FOX

STATEMENTS of purpose are probably noted more commonly in the educational enterprise than in relation to any other activity of our society. Reasons for this are to be found, undoubtedly, in the complexity of the school's task and in the need for coordinating the involvement of large numbers of people in the educational process. Schools must have guidelines for their operation that are understood and supported by teachers, parents, pupils, politicians, business leaders, labor leaders, in short, by all major elements of the society, if they are to operate effectively.

Participation by such numbers and varieties of people in the process of establishing purposes can be expected to create some confusion. Wide varieties of purposes and objectives are continually being posed. Such proposals are phrased as broad generalities and sharply focused specifics; they deal with means and with ends; they are directed toward the entire educational enterprise and toward specific schools or groups within schools. Our concern with balance is indeed appropriate as we consider the problem of describing the major functions or areas of responsibility of the schools.

Purposes grow from many sources. An examination of the role of the school among the various institutions in the society gives rise to statements of purpose which identify unique functions or assign major responsibilities. A study of the problems and needs of the society results in proposals that schools can and should make certain contributions toward the solution of these problems. Chapters Two and Three of this yearbook propose educational purposes which spring from the society.

Concern with the needs of the individual and study of the process of learning and of the nature of child growth and development give rise to other purposes or to different emphases. Chapter Five will describe some of these factors and suggest goals with a psychological orientation.

In some cases purposes may be proposed because of immediate pressures or local problems. In other instances they may reflect the long-term values of the culture. On occasion, purposes may be promoted because of the peculiar strengths or deficiencies in the personal experience of the individual; on other occasions they reflect a concern with the general welfare.

In any event it is clear that a profusion of purposes may be posed as possible guides for the conduct of our schools. It is the aim of this chapter not to develop and defend a set of purposes for education, but rather to investigate some of the factors which may be considered in the search for balance in relation to educational objectives.

Some persons would say that purposes should be stated only in general terms. The proper function of purposes, they would hold, is to set a broad framework against which more specific decisions relating to curriculum, instructional method, and classroom procedures can be made. A great source of confusion relating to purposes in education lies precisely at this point. General statements can be interpreted by each person as he sees fit. For example, the statement, "The purpose of the schools is the intellectual development of the child," can easily be interpreted in two different ways. The person whose values cause him to lean toward establishing an intellectual elite will agree with the statement. So will the individual who would direct the school's role toward the end of effective citizenship. Unless the underlying values or the ultimate application of the stated purpose are made clear, the statement has not served its function of setting a direction for the educational process.

Analysis of the Purpose, Intellectual Development

Let us take, as a case study, this frequently mentioned function of public education: "An important job of the school is the intellectual development of the child." Few persons would quarrel with the general proposition. In accepting this statement of function or purpose, it is probable that other statements or positions have had to be rejected. It could be presumed that one idea that has been rejected is that a high level of intellectual achievement is the *sole* purpose of the school, although there are some who would enthusiastically espouse this proposal. However, such a position would be inconsistent with the traditional proposition in our country that each individual should be provided with the opportunity to develop his talents as fully as possible. We would probably not accept as consistent with our basic values the idea that the purpose of the schools is to indoctrinate the learner in those points of view held by the political party currently in power. So, this idea has been passed over in favor of the more acceptable proposition previously stated. This purpose then, that an important job of the schools is the intellectual development of the child, is considered to be generally in line with values we hold important.

Just what is meant by "intellectual development of the child"? There is no question but that for different people it carries grossly different implications. Some would support the statement with a view toward pushing the schools back to a kind of education recalled from the past: strong emphasis on "basic essentials" and the college preparatory curriculum. Others may have in mind a notion of a highly selective system of education, similar to that of some European countries, where those few pupils who possess superior academic aptitude are groomed for increasingly higher levels of intellectual achievement, while the drop-outs are channeled into the labor force. Another has in mind a psychology of learning that holds the intellect to be an independent and highly important "faculty" to be trained through exercise. The thought that intellectual development is only one aspect of the many that require nurture may be the position taken by yet other advocates.

Five general positions that might be taken toward the proposition that "the job of the school is the intellectual development of the child" are suggested here. These statements are not intended to represent the views of extremists, but of reasonably well-informed lay and professional people.

Position 1. The primary responsibility of the school is intellectual development. Intellectual development is conceived as mastery of subject matter through exposition by the teacher, use of texts, drill, recitation and examination. Education is concerned primarily with building in the learner a storehouse of information, skills and values which may be useful to him at some later time.

Position 2. The primary responsibility of the school is intellectual development. Intellectual development is conceived as being directed toward creative problem solving, the use of education as a tool, the fostering of curiosity, experimentation, and the reorganization of ideas. However, schools should not waste valuable time on the practical arts, the development of social skills, or problems of personal adjustment. Other agencies such as the church, home, and the YWCA and YMCA can do these important jobs.

Position 3. Intellectual development is the primary responsibility of the school, but the individual is an integrated organism. Growth is interrelated. Emotional health, personal-social adjustment, group process skills, and physical vitality all contribute to and are essential to intellectual effectiveness.

Position 4. All areas of development are important in and of themselves. Schools should educate for life. Students need all-round development —social, emotional, intellectual and physical. The public schools are in a better position to do these jobs effectively than is any other institution, although the value of contributions by homes, churches and other agencies is recognized.

Position 5. The academic emphasis is appropriate to only a small portion of the student body. For many, general problems of life, particularly the immediate, practical, personal needs of the pupil are the appropriate subject matter. Vocational skills are of primary importance. Intelligence is developed and utilized by such pupils in relationship to these practical problems of living.

What can the discussion of "balance" in the preceding chapters of this volume contribute to the immediate problem of deciding which of these five positions is the most appropriate? Are the historical values described in Chapter Three pertinent? Should the current social problems which may be suggesting additional values, such as those described in Chapter Two, affect our judgment? Are the principles of teaching and learning discussed in Chapter Five relevant? If not, what values and what learning theory are relevant?

Specifying Values Helps in Clarifying and Understanding the Statement of Purpose

It would appear that each of the positions does reflect to some extent the major values affirmed in Chapter Three. At least they are not in direct opposition. Self-reliance leads one to value an opportunity provided by the school for full development of his intellectual resources. It might also support the importance of personal motivation as a major factor underlying intellectual achievement: "the conviction that people can accomplish whatever they wish to accomplish." It is possible, however, that the value of self-reliance might be seen by some as undergirding Positions 3 or 4 more than the others since the types of problems faced by the individual call for a wide range of skills and resources if they are to be handled effectively. The schools, in producing the self-reliant person, should be concerned with development of *all* the pupil's potentials, not alone the intellectual.

Which of the positions are consistent with the basic value, "freedom for each individual to develop to his maximum potential"? Is the subject matter pathway to intellectual development of Position 1 a good means for developing maximum potential? If the agencies suggested in Position 2 fail to help the child develop his maximum potential for effective social interaction, adequate personal adjustment, and skillful application of the practical arts, what then is the role of the school? On the other hand, does the school organized about Position 5 give sufficient stimulation to the intellectually capable pupil to help him come anywhere near his potential?

In general, each of the positions is based upon a set of values. All five positions seem to affirm that the improvement of society results from the application of intelligence, and that intelligence needs to be cultivated in all individuals regardless of their levels of aptitude. Positions 1 and 2 may rest on an assumption that knowledge is of value for its own sake, that there is a "thrill of learning" which is not necessarily related to the application of learning to life problems. It may also be possible that Positions 1 and 2 assume a hierarchy of value among school subjects regardless of the individual pupil, e.g., "academic" subjects are better than music or industrial arts or physical education, and Latin is better than business English.

On the other hand, Positions 2, 3, 4 and 5 all appear to be based on the assumption that learning is of value only when it modifies behavior. Advocates of Position 2 may be concerned that schools should not be too powerful. It is better to have some decentralization of function or responsibility, even though the schools might be quite able to do most of the jobs.

Advocates of Positions 3, 4 and 5 may value the balanced approach to individual development. Intelligence without moral or spiritual values to guide it, for example, may be socially destructive. These three positions may also be based on a belief that the main purpose of the American schools is to provide for the fullest possible development of each learner for living morally, creatively and productively in a democratic society.

Any attempt to specify all the values underlying the various positions that might be taken with regard to the role of the school in intellectual development would be exhausting. Yet it is only by going through such a process that intelligent judgments can be made. One must support that position which implements most fully the values he holds.

Making Explicit the Learning Theory and Teaching Methods Assumed by the Statement of Purpose Clarifies Its Real Implications

The assumptions made by each of the positions with regard to learning theory and teaching method should be specified. Position 1 clearly relies heavily upon exposition, recitation and examination procedures. Position 2 emphasizes problem solving, although problem solving is evidently conceived as a somewhat restricted intellectual, school-related activity.

Underlying Positions 3 and 4 are the conclusions from child development research which emphasize growth of the child as a whole. An isolated approach to intellectual development apart from other aspects of growth is seen as unrealistic.

Position 5 gives full expression to the psychological concern with the individual as a total personality and the school as a controlled environment within which the unique needs and problems of each pupil are served.

Evidence from Research Can Be Helpful in Establishing Appropriate Emphasis

Value judgments serve their best function when they take into account all available facts. A careful look at the research evidence may shed some light on the issues represented by the several positions taken toward the role of the school in intellectual development. No attempt will be made here to summarize all pertinent research, but rather to illustrate how resort to the research evidence may be helpful in clarifying purposes.

One question that may be asked is, "What is the evidence that shows intellectual development can (or cannot) be fostered in isolation from other areas of growth? Just how much interrelationship exists between the various aspects of growth?" A sample of research data available on this question is an investigation of the relationship between the development of reading skill and general growth.[1] The records of 110 boys and 102 girls on whom a mass of longitudinal growth data had been collected from kindergarten through grade six were used. It was concluded that relative to such measures of growth as height age, weight age, carpal age, and grip age, early readers have higher averages than late readers *at all time points and on all variables.* From the standpoint of readiness for reading, these data suggest that "the way the child matures as a whole is more important than growth in any single attribute." They also suggest that an adequate appraisal of why some children are delayed in learning to read can be made only when all aspects of growth are considered.

Another kind of question has to do with whether or not schools are actually neglecting the intellectual development of children. An indication of the type of evidence available here is found in a general summary of many evaluation studies of elementary school programs recently made by Herrick. He concludes that intellectual development continues to be carried forward effectively in the modern educational programs that have added a wide span of additional objectives and activities:

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[1] Irving H. Anderson and Byron O. Hughes. "The Relationship Between Learning to Read and Growth as a Whole." *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin,* February 1955. p. 65-68.

> When any thoughtful attempt is made to improve educational programs for young children . . . real gains are made in attitude toward education and school, arts and crafts, literature, experimental method, and intellectual processes. There is usually equal accomplishment in skills and content subjects, even though less time is spent in direct instruction in the experimental program. This suggests that if an educational program consciously tries to reflect a broad range of objectives in activities adequate to accomplish them, these additional concerns can be achieved with little apparent loss to the others.[2]

Several of the positions taken toward the purpose of intellectual development differ at the point of the balance between social-emotional development and academic learning. Research efforts to describe this relationship are of fairly recent origin. Currently, an increasing variety of projects dealing with mental health in the classroom is reported in the literature,[3] many of these projects gaining support from the National Institute for Mental Health, U. S. Public Health Service.

Van Egmond,[4] in a study concerned with the relationship between the level of utilization of intellectual ability and social-emotional acceptance by peers, predicted that those pupils who are influential and accepted in their peer relationships would utilize their intellectual ability to a greater degree than those who were not as influential or as well accepted in the peer society. Data from a group of 353 second graders and 287 fifth graders lend clear-cut support to this hypothesis. The relationship is particularly strong at the higher levels of intelligence, and among the older children. A high level of social power is more often associated with the utilization of intellectual ability among boys than among girls, while girls who are high in their affective relationships are most frequently high in their utilization of intelligence.

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[2] Virgil E. Herrick. "Evaluation of Elementary-School Programs." *Encyclopedia of Educational Research.* Third edition. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1960. p. 437. (Reprinted by permission.)

[3] See, for example, *The Journal of Social Issues,* Vol. 15, No. 1, 1959, devoted to the topic, "Mental Health in the Classroom."

[4] Elmer Van Egmond. "Social Interrelationship Skills and Effective Utilization of Intelligence in the Classroom." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 1960.

A question on which we might expect research to shed some light is: "What evidence is there that agencies other than the school are (or are not) doing a job in some of the areas other than the intellectual?" We may say how fine it would be if driver education, important as it is, might be handled by the home, the police department, or by private driver-training agencies. Little evidence seems to be available that these institutions are effective at the present time in dealing with the large scale need.

"To what extent can intellectual development be fostered in isolation from 'life'?" Surely all the evidence on the problem solving approach to learning, on the importance of school-community interaction, and on the instrumental values of the educational process may be cited here. We might even examine the evidence on the subject-centered approach to intellectual development, the research on retention, and transfer of training.

Illustrations from Current Practice Can Aid in Clarifying Purpose by Sharpening Means-Ends Relationships

The problem of achieving balance among purposes cannot be resolved without some attention to how the purposes are implemented in practice. What actually happens in various school programs may vary widely, even though similar purposes have been adopted. In the final analysis the means-ends relationship may be the most important factor in clarifying what is implied by a statement of purpose.

Many schools are taking practical steps toward achieving balance with regard to the intellectual purpose. In many cases these actions result from a careful study of underlying values, the evidence from research, and the relationships to other school objectives. A look at several of these specific school practices may not only illustrate how these schools are attempting to move toward better balance, but may also provide an opportunity for us to examine the proposition that it is through such arrangements as these that acceptable purposes can be more fully realized.

Many high schools are providing opportunities for the intellectually capable student to push further and deeper into significant areas of knowledge and skill. Advanced placement programs provide college level courses in the high school, with an opportunity for those students who successfully complete them to enter more advanced college courses as freshmen (permitting more depth during a regular four year program). In selected cases college credit is granted on the basis of the student's performance in the high school advanced placement course (permitting acceleration in the college program, with the possibility of earlier graduation). Advanced placement programs appear to emphasize the opportunities for intellectual growth for capable students. They do not necessarily provide for or take into account the total growth needs of the student. At its poorest, an advanced placement course might represent a downward imposition from the college of narrowly conceived subject matter. Wisely administered, such programs can be a means of providing more effectively for the range of individual differences in intellectual ability.

A related type of arrangement for the more capable high school student is that of dual enrollment in high school and college. In some communities, where institutions of higher education are conveniently located, the sharp line of separation between secondary school and college is erased in favor of a more flexible plan. Highly selected seniors (selected in terms of academic promise, social maturity, and suitable preparation in a specific subject field) are given an opportunity to enroll in one or more college classes while continuing to be identified primarily with the high school. Credit for the college course is handled either by entering it solely on the high school records, by granting college credit unequivocally, or by giving the student opportunity to take an advanced placement test at the conclusion of the college level course so that information may be provided to the college of the student's choice for later decision about advanced placement or credit. Such plans for dual enrollment when physical conditions are favorable would seem to have many of the same advantages and possible limitations as the advanced placement program, and might also open the way for increased high school-college understanding through the more extensive face-to-face staff interaction required.

A third example of the high school's provision of special opportunities for the intellectually capable student is an arrangement for individual research or special projects under supervision. From 10 to 12 students in the laboratory school at Colorado State College elect to work in a science workshop, located among the service pipes and clutter of a basement area. Requirements are that the student propose and follow through on a project of considerable significance and depth. Projects may extend for two or three years with regular credit being earned. One girl has experimented with bovine mastitis bacteria, developing them in culture, studying their growth, and designing a scheme for classification of varieties that may represent an original contribution. One boy built an oscillograph. Another studied the crystalline structure of rock, developing a technique for grinding and mounting thin cross sections for use as microscope slides.

The Ann Arbor High School in Michigan has conducted a Saturday Science Program for interested high school students. Visiting experts from the university and industry give lectures. A laboratory period provides opportunity for supervised work on special projects.

A characteristic of these special project plans seems to be their emphasis on self-selection by the students. A flexibility of curriculum choice is provided, and the student, with full knowledge of the nature and requirements of the opportunity, decides his course of action.

Looking at a different type of issue, that of providing balance among various curriculum offerings and avoiding a "hierarchy" of courses in terms of their supposed contribution to intellectual development, the leadership furnished by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is cited. In the current statement of *Policies and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools*, course credit is defined in such manner as to make no such distinctions between courses of any type:

> A semester hour is the amount of credit given for the successful completion of a course which meets one period per week for one semester of at least 18 weeks.[5]

Many express a concern for maintaining the standards represented by the traditional high school diploma. This concern has caused school systems to re-evaluate their position regarding the intellectual purpose of the school. They recognize that individual variation among graduating seniors is greater than ever before, because a larger proportion of all youth are remaining in high school, and an increasing number of schools are taking the position that a general diploma should be awarded to all who complete a high school program which is appropriate to their individual needs. Prospective employers, colleges, universities or other agencies interested in the qualifications of the graduate should be furnished with adequate information about a pupil's abilities and achievements. This can be accomplished more directly and effectively through means other than the diploma. The general diploma represents the position that the intellectual developmental purpose of the school is realized when each pupil utilizes opportunities to strengthen his own intellectual resources in a manner that will be most useful to him and to society.

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[5] North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. *Policies and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools*. Revised edition. Chicago: the Association, University of Chicago, 1960. p. 23.

Analysis of the Purpose, Citizenship Education

The intellectual emphasis is by no means the only major purpose around which differences of interpretation and problems of achieving balance arise. Many school patrons would propose "citizenship education" as the central purpose of the school in American society. Are there several reasoned positions that could be taken related to such a premise? Will the problem of seeking balance among such positions be aided by an examination of underlying values, learning theory, research and school practice? It would appear so.

Positions Which Might Be Taken Regarding the Purpose, Citizenship Education

Here again, common agreement can be obtained in support of citizenship education as a major objective. However, differences exist about emphasis, about what citizenship education involves, and about what means are effective in promoting growth in this area. Four positions can be described:

Position 1. Good citizenship is concomitant with a good formal education. The educated man possesses the resources to become a good citizen. More specifically, a thorough grounding in the facts of American history, successful completion of a course in civics or American government, and habitual repetition of the symbols of patriotism—the pledge of allegiance and the national anthem—are effective training for future citizenship.

Position 2. Good citizenship is concomitant with a good formal education. However, the curriculum pattern for citizenship focuses on the social studies and includes a large number of courses arranged in a grade level sequence. (For example: grade 7, selected peoples and nations; grade 8, social studies; grade 9, civics; grade 10, world history; grade 11, U. S. history; grade 12, contemporary problems and/or government.) Courses from other subject areas (English, homemaking, etc.) may also contribute. Emphasis is on acquisition of information and the development of attitudes which will be applied in relationship to future citizenship responsibilities.

Position 3. Citizenship education is not alone the responsibility of the school. While a carefully planned sequence of courses is the core of the program, opportunities should be provided for the school curriculum to include field trips to community agencies, involvement of resource people from the community, and on occasion, actual participation by the pupils in the solution of community problems.

Position 4. Schools provide for the development of good citizens through utilization of the microsociety existing within the school itself as a laboratory for the practice of citizenship. Children are thus citizens in their own right. Limited use of this opportunity might provide for the teaching of citizenship through conformity to standards of conduct (perhaps resulting in a "mark" in citizenship). More extended opportunities are provided when pupils are permitted a limited participation in the management of school affairs. Fullest expression of this position comes in the school in which the entire program of the school is used as a laboratory for citizenship education.

Underlying Values and Assumptions Need To Be Examined

The pragmatic approach to solving problems is presented in Chapter Three as one of the central values of the American culture. Application of this value to the positions regarding education for citizenship previously described might lead one to support the fourth, or possibly the third position, rather than Positions 1 or 2. Continuous use of the school as a laboratory furnishes an opportunity for the learner to be taught citizenship in a problem solving context. This approach is supported by a learning theory which emphasizes the importance of including goal setting, planning, action and evaluation as significant parts of the learning activity.

Other values and assumptions can be described which lead to a citizenship curriculum of a different type. Are Positions 1 and 2 a reflection of the idea that knowledge is of value for its own sake—that Americans should know about their heritage just because they are not "educated" if they do not have this knowledge?

To what extent are the values identified by the advocates of the various positions described under "citizenship education" consistent with those under "intellectual development"? How does one who believes in a hierarchy of subjects place American history or civics in his arrangement of the instructional program? In current practice it appears that there may be an inverse relationship between the general level of academic achievement of high school pupils and the number of credits earned in the social studies.

It is clear that a variety of value orientations may underlie the different positions toward citizenship education as a purpose of American schools. A serious effort to seek balance among such positions would require that these orientations be specified and studied.

Evidence from Experimentation and Research May Assist in Clarifying Purposes for Citizenship Education

The ultimate research objective would be, of course, to relate the quality of civic behavior on the part of graduates of schools to the various citizenship education programs they had followed. While no such extensive studies exist, a number of pertinent questions have been explored. A look at the evidence may be helpful in making appropriate decisions.

In relation to the question of reliance upon course work versus the use of the entire school as a laboratory, several findings can be reported. The New York State Regents' Inquiry on Citizenship Education,[6] in studying programs in 62 New York high schools, reported that the "general morale and spirit of the school or the background of the community in which pupils live are more potent factors in determining attitudes than is school instruction." It was concluded in the same study that "a program of social education in its wider sense cannot be restricted to the social studies; it is dependent on the well-rounded life of the entire school." It is interesting to note, at the same time, that the study found the "acquisition of information was the basic objective in most schools, crowding out other legitimate and important objectives."

It was reported by the Detroit Citizenship Education Study[7] that "schools were effective in teaching ideals of democracy, but there is need for greater understanding of practical democracy and participation in democratic activities." Investigations have been made at Syracuse University's yearly Citizenship Education Conference of delegates from 300 high schools. Conclusion of these studies is that classroom instruction appears to be less effective than the extracurricular program of the high school in achieving the goals of citizenship.

The American Ideals Project at Stanford University (1948) reviewed the effectiveness of various procedures for developing attitudes and understandings fundamental to citizenship in this country. It was concluded that such rituals as the salute to the flag were relatively ineffective. Materials for teaching basic American ideals were developed around unfinished problem stories and sociodramas as more promising approaches.

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[6] Howard E. Wilson. *Education for Citizenship*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1938. (Reprinted by permission.)

[7] Stanley E. Dimond. *Schools and the Development of Good Citizens*. Detroit: Wayne University Press, 1953.

Examination of School Practices Serves To Illustrate and Clarify Purpose

Are there actually to be found in practice school programs which reflect the various positions described earlier? It is possible that seeing the theory clothed with reality may make clearer the original objectives. An excellent summary of current practices and possible improvements is to be found in the recent report of a Study of Citizenship and Youth Development in Secondary Education conducted by the Tufts University Civic Education Center in 1958-59.[8]

It is reported that the typical approach of the American high school to citizenship education is through curriculum and subject matter, with a grade level sequence of subjects which is more or less consistent throughout the country. In addition, however, it is common practice to include as citizenship education a day-to-day conformity to established rules of conduct. In this regard the survey shows that

> Standards of desirable conduct are customarily set by the adults in charge of the American high school, although students may participate to a degree in the articulation and enforcement of such standards. The adults who set these standards (of order, promptness, honesty, quietness, respectfulness, etc.) are usually oriented to middle-class ideas of proper social behavior. The standards they set up for boys and girls reflect this fact.
>
> Where students in a high school tend to come from a lower socio-economic level than that to which the teachers subscribe, adults in the school often spell out with great care both the standards of conduct and the sanctions that will be used to insure conformance to them. This is often true, for example, in setting standards of dress and appearance.[9]

Utilization of the entire school as a laboratory for education in citizenship is well illustrated by the program at the Verde Valley School, Sedona, Arizona. Pertinent excerpts of this description are included herewith:

> At Verde Valley School there is an assumption that citizenship can best be learned academically through content that goes beyond the history-civics-and-geography approach found in many American high schools. Courses deal directly with the values of the classical cultural heritage, the principles and findings of anthropology, the study of comparative religions, and the philosophies of the human situation.

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[8] Franklin Patterson. *High Schools for a Free Society: Education for Citizenship in American Secondary Schools.* The Tufts University Civic Education Center. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1960.

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 43.

The school has an international character in its faculty and student body. In 1958-59, faculty and students included persons with backgrounds in China, Germany, Iran, Pakistan, Czechoslovakia, the United States, Belgium, Argentina, Spain, Canada, Italy, Venezuela, Guatemala, Egypt, England, Mexico, Hungary, and Switzerland. The student group included an American Negro, two Laguna Indians, one Navajo Indian, and several Asians. There is an assumption by the school that diversity of national and ethnic backgrounds in the faculty and student group tends to contribute to international and intercultural understanding. The school uses field trips to broaden the cultural experience of students. The major instance of this is the annual field trip to Mexico. For twenty-two days each year all Verde Valley students and faculty travel some 5,000 miles by truck on a camping-out basis deep into Mexico. Students stay with Mexican families for a portion of the time, and all of them have study-projects to complete during the course of the field trip. They write evaluation papers dealing with these study-projects upon their return to Verde Valley. The trips to Mexico, the evaluations that the students later write of their experiences, and the long discussions in which they engage give boys and girls insights into another culture that book-study of anthropology could not provide. Two years of Spanish is compulsory for all students at Verde Valley School, with a strong emphasis on the direct method of instruction. As a consequence, most of the students find that they can handle at least the essentials of communication when they travel in Mexico and live with Mexican families.

Another intercultural experience is an annual eight-day trip into the Navajo country. Students mingle closely with the Navajo people and have an opportunity to see specific features of their culture, such as the important night ceremonial dances. Individual students or small groups stay with Indian families, with Indian service workers, in missions, and at reservation schools.

Ninth-grade students usually make a study of the water problem of the Salt River Valley near Phoenix. They visit pumping plants, canal systems, dams, and other facilities. They learn of an increasing development of agriculture and population. In connection with this trip, students investigate practical civic problems that occupy people in the Phoenix area today.

Tenth-grade students visit commercial farms in the Phoenix area. They see how produce is shipped from Arizona to all parts of the United States, and they observe conditions of farm labor in large agricultural operations. In their farm visits, students see Mexicans and Navajos who are employed in large numbers for farm work. Eleventh graders each year pay a visit to the headquarters of the AFL-CIO in Phoenix. They inquire about organized labor and the role of unions in American life. Students also interview management leaders and have an opportunity to gain management's point of view in relation to labor and unions.

Numerous opportunities are provided at Verde Valley School for boys and girls to learn what it means in practice to be responsible citizens. One of the most important of these opportunities lies in what the school refers to as "work jobs." Students at Verde Valley School, like those at many boarding schools,

> wait on table and clean the dining room, classrooms, and their own dormitories. But Verde Valley students do much more than this in the maintenance of their school. In accordance with a regular schedule, they help construct new buildings, lay underground utilities, and maintain school equipment. When excavations are made, or when rocks are secured for foundations, students do virtually all of the work. Some students drive school trucks, others drive the school's two tractors. Students work together in crews, each with its own student head. . . .
>
> There are several ways that students at Verde Valley School can learn adult roles of responsibility, participation, and leadership through student organizations. One way is provided by the dormitory council, which includes student representatives from both girls' and boys' dormitories. Individual student leadership also expresses itself in the School Community Meeting. Students and faculty meet once a week as a school community, under the leadership of a student president. The meeting has limited legislative powers, but its members can make recommendations on any phase of school life. According to the school administration, approximately 85 per cent of such recommendations have been approved and adopted. The elected Student Council is the third avenue in school government through which Verde Valley students may gain experience in democratic participation and leadership. The Council includes twelve boys and girls who serve as an advisory committee to the director of the school.
>
> At Verde Valley School, citizenship education emphasizes intercultural and international understanding, individual and shared responsibility for actual work to keep the school going, and considerable student participation in the government of the school. The attention to anthropology in the formal curriculum, the field trips into other cultures, the diverse ethnic and national composition of the student and faculty group, the "work jobs," student government activities, and other evidences point up the attitude of the school toward the nature of citizenship.
>
> . . . the total school culture at Verde Valley tends to help individual development and the learning of responsible social behavior. Students appear free to express criticisms and differences of opinion in relation to the policies of the school. A visitor gains the impression that such discussion is in the nature of commenting constructively on a program in which all feel involved. Students, staff, and faculty tend to speak of "our" school. Visiting the Verde Valley School, one feels that he has looked in upon a *community* in which individual responsibility and productive social relationships are valued by adults and adolescents alike.[10]

In summary, the focus in this chapter has been on the process whereby the seeking citizen or educator may achieve balance among conflicting or varying purposes proposed for the schools. The basic proposition is that no "correct" solution may be described by this yearbook or by any group of experts. The appropriate decision will be dependent in large measure upon the *values* held by the individual or group concerned, and to some extent upon the *principles of learning* accepted by them. Careful examination of *research evidence* and *description of practice* will serve to clarify what is meant by various statements of purpose and therefore assist in arriving at a more intelligent conclusion.

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[10] *Ibid.*, p. 55-60.

Through the presentation of two "case studies," the purposes of intellectual development and citizenship education, illustrations were given of how the analysis procedure might be carried forward. These two purposes were selected because they are not only commonly accepted, but also are to some extent divergent.

If conflicts or misunderstandings with regard to the defining of purposes for public education are to be avoided, certain steps must be taken. It is clear that judgments based on partial or inaccurate information, and/or on unspecified values or on values which are not acceptable to the community, will need to be replaced by judgments which are the product of a logical process of discussion and study. Clarification of underlying values, identification of research evidence, and description of practice are essential to such a process.

CHAPTER FIVE

Balance in Teaching Methods and Learning Processes

FRANCIS J. DI VESTA

IN THE PAST decade many suggestions for modifying the educational system have been made. Many of the proposals have been based on prejudice, bias and facts distorted to conform to one point of view or another rather than on an understanding of principles which govern learning. Fortunately we now appear to be moving into a period in which more careful consideration is given to the values involved in an issue, particularly those societal values which are clearly relevant to the objectives of the school system. We are becoming more reluctant to make a change just to "keep up with the Russians." Such a position, including careful testing of new innovations, should result in a realistic and constructive transformation of the educational system to fit the rapidly changing demands of society. In this process of transformation, the educator and the psychologist must work hand in hand, for the facts emerging from the study of the behavioral sciences will be of major importance. In these sciences, education has many of its roots.

As we shall note throughout this chapter, the last part of the past decade has seen us on the threshold of major and exciting advances in psychology.[1] It seems inevitable that these findings should influence the profession of education before we are too far into the present decade. It is certain that we are not using all that we know. In all humility the psychologist must also admit that there is much about the psychology of instruction and classroom learning that is not known. It is also reasonable to expect that in the next decade more radical suggestions for change will appear. Important in this regard is the necessity for

[1] This chapter is not to be regarded as a complete review of the literature in the areas discussed. An attempt is made to highlight some of the findings of recent psychological research and to discuss some curricular issues in the light of these findings. Each of the sections in this chapter is based primarily on the reports, articles and/or books referred to. It is to be recognized that in other treatments of the topics discussed here quite different references might have been used.

continual appraisal of the innovations against a body of psychological facts, particularly those which pertain to learning and emotional development.

Objectives of Education

The achievement of curriculum balance must be based upon an analysis and application of psychological knowledge as it relates to the classroom and described in terms of our assumptions about education and its purposes. The orientation of this chapter is that a major concern of the educator is the management of the learning process. The educator must know how pupils develop motivations (for these are learned), motor patterns, concepts and attitudes. He must be able to control the learning process and know the pupil's capabilities with respect to motivation and learning at each level of development.

The educational institution plays an important role in the socialization process. Its primary responsibility is to develop those patterns of behavior that will prepare pupils to meet and react to the changing and the stable environmental patterns to be found in our society. In this context the child is expected to learn specific and general facts. These learnings comprise an important segment of the foundation of intellectual development. Certainly they are fundamental to those higher intellectual processes we call thinking, problem solving, and creativity. As important, however, is the notion that these fundamentals provide the pupil with direction in his everyday behavior. He learns not only the facts, generalizations and the skills, but also the privileges and the values that exist in a democracy. Whatever he learns must have meaning for him, for he must understand what he is doing. Since some values contradict others, he must be prepared to evaluate the consequences of a choice among values, not alone for the immediate effects but also for the long-range results. In the process of socialization, however, the pupil must learn more than the cognitive behaviors. He is expected to know how to get along with others, how to persuade others, and all other social skills that are so necessary in effective interpersonal relations. His future success will depend in large part on his confidence in social situations. Other subgoals in the area of social skills require that the pupil learn to be socially sensitive, yet not oversensitive, to profit from social experience, and to evaluate his own contribution to a group goal.

While he is learning within these broad categories of behaviors involved in the socialization process—facts and knowledge, motivations and values, and social skills—the pupil inevitably develops certain deep-seated feelings about himself. Feelings of inadequacy and of self-doubt may appear in some pupils. These feelings should be of major concern to the educator because such attitudes interfere seriously with the pupil's progress, regardless of his intellectual level. The educator should be equally familiar with the fact that such feelings of inadequacy are capable of being engendered in the school by certain experiences of failure and by inadequate motivations. The effective individual in our society is one who has feelings of self-confidence. Without this self-confidence he will be handicapped in making the fullest contribution to society, regardless of any ability he may have or whatever else he may have accomplished. A curriculum that makes no provision for this phase of psychological development cannot be considered balanced.

That all of the previously mentioned goals of socialization are desirable would probably be accepted without debate by a majority of persons. From the standpoint of curriculum balance a primary question seems to be, "Which objectives are the primary responsibility of the school?" This appears to be one of the more currently popular points for argument. Even as this was being written, a news item appeared entitled, "Teachers Doing Home's Work?"[2] The main idea in the story seems to be summarized by these statements: "The time may have come to divide again more effectively the tasks of home and school. . . . If more homes again tackle 'life adjustment' and 'social values,' the schools may find it easier to concentrate on learning."

Implicit in these statements is, first, the idea that life adjustment and social values can somehow be separated from everything else the child does and be relegated to a place in the home, divorced from everything the child does in school; and second, that life adjustment and social values are somehow acquired by a process (undesignated) other than learning. It should be apparent from our previous statements that both points are contradicted by our present psychological knowledge. Certainly, the school has had to take responsibility for certain objectives by specific programs only tangentially related to the academic segment of the curriculum (e.g., life adjustment courses, guidance programs, and the like). It has done so with the deliberate and sincere intent that these elements are important if the pupil's work is to be effective. Even the school which claims that such objectives are not within its domain has some effect on the total development of pupils. The adjustment and mental health of the pupil are influenced by such things as the methods that are used, the kinds of curricula that are offered, the pupil's relationships with his peers and teachers, and the experiences of success and failure.

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[2] *The New York Times,* section 4, page E9, January 3, 1960.

One might illustrate these consequences by considering the example of the pupil who learns to abide by every dictate of the authoritarian teacher. He learns to have everything spelled out for him and learns to like having his work planned for him. Eventually he learns to condescend to authority, restricting his activity to the teacher's requirements and assignments. He thus learns and fixes those behaviors that inhibit the response patterns of flexibility and individual initiative so essential to creative thinking. Irrespective of whether the school believes the fostering of adjustment and mental health are a part of its responsibilities, or whether it makes provision for these objectives, the effects will be there for good or for ill.

Balance obviously will not be achieved by the neglect or exclusion of some of these objectives from the curriculum, as the news item previously quoted would have us do. Balance in the curriculum demands a conscious, deliberate and thoughtful consideration, or at the very least an awareness of all of the influences on the educative process. Attitudes and social values are very much a part of the pupil's behavior; they must be as purposefully designed and shaped as are other behavior patterns. An interesting fact is that attitudes and social values are capable of being altered, modified, shaped and molded by educational methods to the needs of the individual and of society.[3]

Some Principles of Learning Affecting Balance

Decisions leading toward balance in the curriculum require judgments, on the one hand, about the desirability of certain objectives, and on the other, about the nature of the learning process. We cannot give here a complete presentation of the principles of learning that would be of use to the teacher and the school in general. However, we may be able to indicate some generalizations from psychology that can be considered. These principles are well established and are helpful guideposts in achieving curriculum balance.[4]

First among these principles is that we learn the behavior patterns emerging from our activity. If we understand this principle, it becomes quite clear that the ultimate curriculum is comprised of all activities engaged in by the pupil and as interpreted by the pupil. The traditional view of the curriculum as being comprised of a series of courses quite isolated from one another is obviously inadequate in the present orientation. Similarly, we cannot claim that two or more courses are comparable merely because they are labeled by the same name. Unfortunately, this view has persisted in spite of the support provided by the evidence in the New York study many years ago, demonstrating that the "activity" program had outcomes over and above those attained in the traditional school curriculum.[5] Close cooperation between the psychologist and the educator would appear to be highly desirable in an operational analysis of the curriculum that would lead to the provision of specific activities in each course, and a balanced integration among these activities.

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[3] The principles of influencing these behavior patterns by reinforcement are described by B. F. Skinner in two books: *Science and Human Behavior*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1953; and *Walden Two*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1948.

[4] The principles here are based on: L. J. Cronbach. "Education Approaches a Period of Constructive Change." *The Nation's Schools*, May 1959.

A second principle is that any single experience may contribute to the pupil's development in many different ways. To take a single, oversimplified illustration, consider the pupil's engaging in the solution of a problem in addition. We would ordinarily view this activity as being one that will contribute only to the pupil's grasp of arithmetic. However, many other responses are being learned that often go unnoticed. An analysis of his activity might indicate that he is learning certain postural behaviors, ways of holding the pencil, work habits, study habits and the like. At a more subtle level we would also observe that he is learning attitudes toward arithmetic and attitudes toward himself while doing arithmetic. Feelings about others are also acquired in the context of the classroom, as are attitudes of moral responsibility and the generalized attitudes that determine the pupil's attitude toward school work in general. While it is true that the school has primary responsibility for the development of the intellect (and this has many meanings including the fact-storing function called memory, the organizing function that we call thinking, and the novel-integration-of-isolated-experiences function that we call problem solving), it is quite evident that the school cannot neglect the supplemental function of developing the personality.

A third principle is that pupils differ in their rate of growth, and each stage of growth has its own readiness requirements. Of all the principles this one has been most recognized by educators in general, although the emphases from one era to another have never been entirely clear or consistent. It can be recognized in such concepts as developmental tasks, readiness and individual differences. Provision for ways of adapting to differences among pupils through instructional programs and teaching methods is the manner of implementing this principle in curriculum development.

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[5] A. T. Jersild, R. L. Thorndike, B. Goldman, J. W. Wrightstone and J. J. Loftus. "A Further Comparison of Pupils in 'Activity' and 'Non-activity' Schools." *Journal of Experimental Education* 9: 303-309; June 1941.

The educator has long been aware of this requirement for learning. One illustration is the widespread use of age-graded plans which assumes that the readiness patterns of all pupils at a certain level are alike. The modern educator recognizes the inadequacy of this assumption, and encourages other bases for adapting to individual differences. Some of these include the nongraded plans and contract plans, in addition to the more common innovations of course and curricular electives, acceleration and retardation. More recently, the "exceptional child," a broad category including the mentally retarded and the gifted, has been given considerable attention since certain phases of the program for these children do require special teaching techniques. However, when we adapt to individual differences by homogeneous groupings, whatever the basis, individual differences will continue to exist, and possibly may be increased in other pupil characteristics.

Whatever the situation may be with respect to individual differences, balance in the curriculum means giving each pupil a chance to develop his talents to the fullest. Society's need is to make the most of the total capacity of all individuals. Human potential is the one resource no society can afford to waste. The manner of adapting to individual differences can only be evaluated by the contribution it makes to all pupils. It is not a decision to be made on the basis of a whim of the day or of political pressure.

A *fourth principle* is that pupils learn only those behavior patterns that bring satisfactions. This is at present one of the most well-established psychological principles, known in other contexts as the principle of reinforcement or the empirical law of effect. On the other hand, it probably is also one of the most misinterpreted principles. A common misunderstanding is that the rewards include only some tangible or easily observed attainment. The process is much more complex! At one extreme the pupil may learn for a candy bar or piece of gum, while at the other extreme, he may learn as a way of achieving some distant goal, such as approval from his parents, a school grade, or a college diploma. The most important factor is that the pupil works toward those goals which are valued by him, and often these goals are diametrically opposed to those ends the teacher hopes will be rewarding. Implicit in this principle is the notion that rewards are signs of success and failure, i.e., if the goal is attained, the positive value of the behavior is confirmed; if it is not attained, the positive value of the behavior is contradicted. The specific reward in human behavior is often unidentifiable. However, the role of rewards is implicit in the concepts of knowledge of progress and motives.

Rewards do more than fix behavior. They also influence the pupil's motivation. The successful pupil will be able to meet occasional failure more readily than one who has always failed in the past. Success leads to future endeavor in similar activities; it develops preferences. At the same time success frees the pupil from fears engendered by feelings of inadequacy, thereby increasing his capacity for creativity and his desire and hope for further success. Failure, on the other hand, has the opposite effect. Continually experienced, failure makes pupils slavish and fearful. They may set low goals in the expectation of tasting some success; or they may set unrealistically high objectives in the illusion that by some sheer stroke of luck they will reach these goals.

Balance with respect to this principle means that some provision will be made for all pupils to meet success in classroom activities, and to meet success most of the time. Occasional failures can be used as an opportunity to show the pupil how to profit from experience. The opportunity for challenge is provided through a graded curriculum, in the sense that tasks of increasing difficulty and responsibility will be presented, always beyond the pupil's present level of attainment but still capable of being achieved.

Achieving Balance in the Face of Pressure

At this point we will examine more intensively the pressures that exist for change in the curriculum. An appraisal of these pressures must include identifying the relevant issues, the societal values involved, and the research evidence that relates to the issue in question. A major problem is that of bridging the gap between the science of learning and the management of education. It is not intended that this presentation will be definitive or conclusive, for there is still a need to apply what we know from laboratory situations to the classroom, and to test the influence of variables discovered in laboratory settings on instruction, school learning, and curriculum development. Careful evaluation of new pressures at the time they are applied is essential; for even though such evaluation may result in a temporary delay, it is more efficient than undoing the damage caused by the introduction of an innovation that may turn out to be a "dud." As educators we must be willing to examine the soundness of what we are doing.

Pressure To Increase Standards

One of the current and popular trends of public opinion concerning change in the curriculum is the "get tough" attitude. This pressure is based in part on a cultural learning related to the setting of goals. As a society we depreciate an "easy" victory; for example, very few people cheat at solitaire. We consider the individual who steps up and takes a second toss in horseshoes in order to increase his score as a person at an immature level of development. We tend to place goals on some sort of a continuum from low to high, and as the high ones are more difficult they represent greater achievement when reached than do low ones.

There appear to be at least three facets to this pressure. One is that the "get tough" attitude will develop disciplined pupils and even cut down on such problems as delinquency. Another is that by increasing standards we will be developing pupil potential to the greatest possible extent. A third implication is that our present curriculum has been downgraded by the modern educator and is "softer" than it was three or four decades ago.

The first of these supposed outcomes involves a consideration of the principles of transfer. The discrediting of the view that the discipline of the mind could be strengthened by having the pupil work at difficult subjects was initiated around the turn of the century by William James. An outstanding finding was that practice in a function did not enhance the usefulness of that function for all situations, e.g., memorizing did not strengthen the memory. Later, the work of Thorndike demonstrated no superiority of the vocational over the traditional curriculum when the mental growth of pupils in both curricula was compared. All told, this led to a highly pessimistic view of the possibility of transfer, leading to a curriculum that placed most of its emphasis on anticipated needs of pupils. This position tends to establish intelligence as a necessity for education rather than an outcome, a view that persists today. The total reaction to formal discipline swung the pendulum too far in the opposite direction. While it is correct that the so-called traditional subjects do not have a general effect across all fields, they may still have considerable value in a society as part of a larger discipline. The major lesson here, however, is that a reversion to a higher standard for toughness' sake and as a way of disciplining the child is as invalid as the old concept of formal discipline; yet the view seems to appeal to a large group of lay persons and professional educators alike. It seems correct that the pupil can learn a discipline as a systematic way of knowing and of using knowledge to think within specific identifiable fields.

The proponents of formal discipline erred in carrying their point of view to effects that were too general. From the time of Woodrow's early experiments on the transfer of methods of memorizing, we have had evidence that general ways of reacting can be learned and transferred to facilitate learning in new situations. For example, we do learn methods of outlining which cut across several fields; but methods are ways of working efficiently, they are ways of putting intellect to work; they are *not* formal, mental disciplines. Another illustration is in the concept of "insight" which has enjoyed considerable popularity as a desirable outcome of education. Insight is a term describing the phenomenon of a sudden increase in learning. It tells us little about what is happening to the pupil or what we can do as teachers to develop this desirable feature of the educative process. In recent years Harry Harlow[6] has demonstrated in his laboratory that insight itself is learned in the form of rules-of-the-game. This is what happens when the pupil is in the "catching on" period of learning. Here is a point at which we can certainly modify our curriculum. It seems that we are paying too little attention to this most pervasive outcome that we call "learning how to learn." Such teaching should be started as early as the kindergarten. It should be reinforced as the child goes from one grade to the next and from one subject to another so that by the time the pupil completes his formal education the ways of learning and attacking problems, the "rules of the game" (for example, good work habits, methods of outlining, logic), will be sufficiently generalized to enable the pupil to meet many of life's problems. Even here a caution might be inserted with respect to the pupil's readiness for this kind of learning. There is evidence from laboratory work with primates that certain kinds of learning-sets may be impaired if learning is initiated before the subjects have sufficient capability for such learning.[7] As may be seen from this analysis, the difficulty with the formal discipline point of view is not in the belief of a general transfer, but in not recognizing the relative specificity of the discipline such as language, mathematics or history.[8] While there may be transfer within each discipline, it is doubtful that much transfer occurs among them. A similar view must be taken of the position that a "get tough" curriculum will encourage the individual pupil to work harder, take more responsibility, and so on.

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[6] H. F. Harlow. "The Formation of Learning Sets." *Psychological Review* 56: 51-65; January 1949.

[7] H. F. Harlow. "The Development of Learning in the Rhesus Monkey." *American Scientist* 47: 459-79; 1959.

[8] See also L. J. Cronbach, *op. cit.*

Another suggestion made by the "get tough" adherents is to revert to a traditional curriculum because it set "high" standards and "disciplined" the child. Before this argument is taken too seriously, one should examine carefully a study conducted at the University of Illinois.[9] The deficiency was found not to be that of an overemphasis on modern subjects but that the majority of entering freshmen were coming from high schools in which the traditional subjects were taught by outmoded methods. The applicants to the colleges were found to be taking about the same distribution of subjects as had the entering students 30 years before.

Balance cannot be achieved by a renewed emphasis on the traditional subjects, but by updating much of our current subject matter so that we present depth, rather than breadth at the expense of depth. The exceptionally bright child will profit most from such training, but it is evident that the average pupil also will benefit through the development of more precise concepts and skills. The problem has been faced in precisely this way by the mathematicians. One of their initial steps was to take a fresh look at their discipline as taught in school. They have found it to be rooted in subject matter over 300 years old. With revisions in techniques, they have demonstrated that young pupils, as early as in the fourth and fifth grades, can profit from experience with some of the more advanced concepts of modern mathematics. This appears to be a direction that other areas of subject matter might take.

Meaning and Curriculum Balance

The development of meaning has always been a popular objective for the curriculum maker. Although the role of meaning was unclear and the method of teaching it was unreliable, meaning seemed like a good thing to favor. In the absence of an empirical foundation, it has been exploited to the point at which many have thought it to be a meaningless cliché, but the pressure to teach meaning continues. The pressure becomes a vital one for balance in the curriculum since meaning and its effects are to be found in the kinds of experiences the school provides for the pupil. Through recent research the phrase *development of meaning* has been given new vitality and respectability. It seems

[9] Joint Committee on Improvement of Science Teaching of the University of Illinois. *Improving Science Programs in Illinois.* Urbana: University of Illinois, 1958. As discussed in L. J. Cronbach, *op. cit.*

highly probable that its influence on the curriculum will soon be constructively reinstated.

An important factor in this regard is that educators and psychologists are now defining the operations required to teach meaning. At the University of Illinois, for example, those interested in improving methods of teaching mathematics indicate the importance of two conditions for achieving meaning. The first of these is precision of language, i.e., teachers and textbooks must use unambiguous language; and the second is discovery, i.e., the presentation of problems according to a prescribed order of difficulty and unknowns so that in working out these problems the pupil is able to discover for himself the generalizations involved.[10]

These developments are worthy of attention since they represent a successful bridging of the gap between psychological principles and educational practices.

The development of precision of language in mathematics is assumed to take a course approximating the following: (a) There is first an assumption that there are mathematical entities (e.g., the number 3), and that these are nonphysical *referents.* (b) Pupils develop awareness of these entities by experience (the child has three dolls and requires three *sets* of clothes, three carriages, etc.). (c) A *name* (symbol) is found for the entity. The name is essential because it provides the pupil with a basis for communicating his awareness. The name might be in the form of a gesture (three fingers) or in terms of a verbalization. In this process it is essential to recognize that by increasing awareness and experience, the name (symbol) itself does not acquire additional attributes. The symbol does nothing more than stand for the referent; both must be kept distinct if pupils are to develop precise meanings. The distinction between symbols and numbers, for example, is illustrated in the following sentences:

> '6363' contains '63' twice, but 6363 contains 63 one hundred one times.
> '31425' has 5 digits and denotes a number which is divisible by 5.
> '$3 + 4$,' '$8 - 1$,' and '7' are names of $3 + 4$.
> '$2/3$' and '$4/6$' are different symbols, but $2/3$ is $4/6$.[11]

The assumptions that are made herein follow closely the procedure generally described for the development of concepts. In any area of subject matter it is essential that the curriculum be based on the development of precise concepts. The tyranny of inaccurately developed concepts is that associated symbols become masters of men when they become "real" or when they are used as an explanation of causality (e.g., in superstitions, racial prejudice).

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[10] The discussion of meaning in mathematics is based on M. Beberman. *An Emerging Program of Secondary School Mathematics.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1958. Similar general principles govern the presentation of the Syracuse University Madison Project materials.

[11] M. Beberman, *ibid.*, p. 11-12.

The principle of discovery follows in natural sequence from the bases of concept formation. Understanding in any area will be promoted and encouraged if the pupil plays an active role in formulating for himself the generalizations desired from a particular lesson. To achieve balance in a curriculum, in which discovery is used, there must be careful planning in the selection of *materials to be used,* of the *presentation sequence* of the material, and of *pupil activities.* This general plan touches on what appears to be an obvious necessity, but a long-neglected requirement, in educational practice. In the context of the teaching machine discussed elsewhere in this chapter, it has been designated by the term "programing." In general, it is the procedure used by the Illinois group for teaching mathematics, wherein the teacher insists on *invention* by the pupil in the areas of algebraic algorisms, solving of simple equations and inequations, and manipulating algebraic expressions. By means of direct experience the pupil first develops an awareness of the concept (entity), then the principles involved, and sometime later he calls it by its name—either one he invents or one given it by the mathematicians.

The Illinois program demonstrates the feasibility of the successful application of learning principles to the teaching of mathematics. Through such analysis we can achieve the objective of pupil understanding in other programs of study. By the discovery method the pupil is provided many experiences with the referent, and through these experiences he interprets for himself the meaning to be generalized from those experiences.

This view seems to hold up against the laboratory findings as shown in an analysis of verbal learning by Underwood.[12] His primary purpose was to analyze the implication of a laboratory variable for the educative process. In this analysis it was clearly stated that our primary educational effort is devoted to making meaningful to the pupil what are, at first, meaningless verbalizations. The analysis then considers the substantial evidence that meaningfulness may be defined as the number of associations that are elicited by a particular verbal unit. In turn, the number of associations elicited were found to be correlated with familiarity of the word. Thus, meaningfulness was demonstrated to be the result of frequency of experience with the verbal unit. Once the pupil acquires a relatively high level of meaningfulness for a verbal unit, new associations and combinations with other verbal units can be made more readily. This is one of the ways in which verbal behavior aids the pupil to reach new solutions to problems in problem solving and to organize his ideas in creative thinking. If there is a paucity of associations with these words, or if the associations are inaccurate, then we say that the pupil has learned by rote or has learned arbitrary associations that are of relatively little value to him.

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[12] B. J. Underwood. "Verbal Learning in the Educative Process." *Harvard Educational Review* 29: 107-17; Spring 1959.

The process of building meaning by wide experience in a variety of situations is essential to the development of associations. The more associations, and consequently meanings, the pupil has for each of the verbal units, the more able will he be to "discover" for himself new solutions to problems and thus to continue to grow and develop when his formal education is completed. To achieve this value it will be essential that the curriculum be based on a systematic analysis of tasks and experiences the pupil must have in each discipline that are most representative of the patterns he will need later in life, just as the mathematician-secondary school teacher teams have done in the Illinois study.

Pressure To Automatize the Classroom

By hindsight, it now seems that pressures toward automatizing the classroom were inevitable in a society in which automation has crept into every field of industrial and scientific endeavor. The claims for automation are that it will save teachers, will make for greater efficiency in learning, and will make it easier to provide for individual differences. In the face of this pressure it would be an easy matter to go overboard and put television into every classroom or to teach solely by the use of a teaching machine. To do so without a consideration of other values (e.g., the development of social skills through teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction) would soon create an imbalance. Even the use of one form of automation to the exclusion of another might lead to a degree of imbalance. Enthusiasts for television, for example, emphasize its efficient communication, and the ease with which one teacher can contact larger populations of pupils simultaneously. The disadvantage in television teaching is the lack of control over pupil motivations and the lack of contact between pupil and teacher.

Although the teaching machine also excludes direct contact with the teacher, its values are found in the careful programing of pupil activity and the selective administration of rewards for correct behavior. Both television and teaching machines appear to be capable of fulfilling some basic educational requirements; however, each would create imbalance if used by itself. Discussion of both would require quite different considerations. Accordingly, the present discussion will be limited to the teaching machine, since its development depends more directly on certain principles in the psychological foundations of education.

The teaching machine is not new. It has been nearly 30 years since Pressey [13] wrote his "Contributions Toward the Coming Industrial Revolution in Education." At that time he had developed simple machines for self-teaching and had used these in his classes. The primary emphasis in the development of these first devices was in the testing function. Students using the instruments obtained immediate knowledge of results and corrections to their errors on multiple-choice questions. (The inability of the teacher to provide continual reinforcement to the pupils in large classes has long been recognized as a problem in teaching and learning.) In spite of the fact that these devices could serve a useful function in education there was little interest in them, either by psychologists or educators, perhaps because the testing function could be more flexibly handled in other ways.

A revitalization, leading to the current interest in the teaching machine, occurred as a result of B. F. Skinner's research. In a very real sense, the successful use of the teaching machine depends on and is a confirmation of Skinner's functional analysis of behavior. These principles, on which the current use of the machine is patterned, are described by Hively as follows:

1. Create an atmosphere conducive to study by eliminating extraneous stimuli.
2. Overcome the interfering effects of anxiety and timidity by the reduction of, or better still, the elimination of negative reinforcement (punishment).
3. Observe the pupil's behavior carefully, study his interests, and gain his respect and confidence in order that effective rewards may be located.
4. Since behavior patterns are strengthened by rewarding circumstances, the rewards must be carefully provided so that the desired behavior patterns are rewarded and undesirable ones are *not* rewarded.
5. Rewards may be provided by knowledge of results and/or by pointing out relationships between the student's interests and the material studied.
6. Control of behavior depends upon the accurate presentation of rewards. Very often classroom outcomes are not those expected because other rewards may be present that are uncontrolled by the teacher. Among these are the pupil's own interpretation (which may differ from the teacher's) of the

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[13] S. L. Pressey. "A Third and Fourth Contribution Toward the Coming Industrial Revolution in Education." *School and Society* 36: 668-72; November 1932.

rewards and control exerted by rewards meted out by other members of the class. Consequently, disciplinary problems may arise because of a conflict in interests. Delayed rewards which are tied into behavior patterns not recognized by the teacher provide misinformation to the pupil. Infrequent rewards result in apathy. Negative rewards result in anxiety, avoidance and resentment. All of these interfere with the progress of learning and with the teacher's control of the learning process. (The most effective way of eliminating an incorrect or undesirable behavior pattern is to extinguish it through nonreinforcement.)

7. Adjust the subject matter to the pupil's level of ability (readiness). The material should be presented in a graded sequence, always challenging to the pupil but within the level of his ability.[14]

The foregoing description must be taken into account before the pupil learns, particularly in programing, since the machine must "teach" automatically. Through this view of the machine, the curriculum maker can become more aware, not only of the principles of the learning-teaching process, but also in the way these principles are implemented. The "machine" has called attention to two very important processes. The first is that of reinforcement of the pupil's behavior. The automatic confirmation of correct responses is not new since this was the essential characteristic of Pressey's machine. The second process, that of programing, is Skinner's contribution.

Programing consists of the careful sequential ordering of problems so that the pupil can proceed with a reasonable probability of success from the simple to the complex, from the easy to the more difficult, without guidance from others. In Skinner's terms, the pupil's behavior is shaped, through the approximation method, by a combination of reinforcement and programing provided by the machine. Through the use of these processes it is possible for the pupil to proceed at his own pace, and within the limits of his own resources and capacities. Once the pupil has learned certain behavior patterns—e.g., within arithmetic or a foreign language—he may review what has been learned by repeating the program, or extensions of the program, to maintain his level of proficiency.

There have been many modifications of the teaching machine. The scrambled book and simple machines resembling a cross between computing machines and counters have been developed. Elaborate devices utilizing electronic networks are available. It seems quite reasonable that as research continues in this now popular area the machines will become more complex. They can be developed, for example, to store several consecutive programs; to test pupils and refer them to the appropriate program for their specific level of ability; to store information of several varieties so that it can be relayed automatically to the pupil at specific parts of the program or relayed on demand by the pupil if and when he needs it. This seems an answer to those who say that the teaching machine is limited to the mere teaching of associations.

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[14] W. Hively. "Implications for the Classroom of B. F. Skinner's Analysis of Behavior." *Harvard Educational Review* 29: 37-42; Winter 1959.

The contribution of the teaching machine is not in the mechanical device or machine which by itself is a mere shell. Its importance is in bringing to the attention of the educator several important variables in the teaching process and ways of implementing these in teaching (and the teaching machine is only one way). Most important of all, the machine has suggested variables in a form that can now be subjected to experimental test. From the research conducted thus far there has come a new language. We find such terms as "programing," already described; "cueing," to represent the information given to the pupil at various points in the program; "branching," to indicate that the program goes from one main theme to one or more side paths; and "step-size," to indicate the magnitude of the jump between one problem and the next, either in terms of difficulty or complexity. Each of these represents a variable of fundamental importance in planning the curriculum. For example, "What are the technical rules by which programs are developed?" and "What is the effect of 'step-size' on learning?"

The answers to many questions will come about through the direct use of the machine. The designer-teacher will get some idea of the program's weaknesses and strengths by analysis of pupil responses to problems under specified conditions of programing. The problem can then be rearranged to achieve the desired degree of efficiency. In addition, the use of these devices permits an analysis of subject matter so that it can be deliberately taught in a prescribed manner. The pupil's progress and level of accomplishment accordingly can be evaluated more accurately than is possible with older methods. In this process of feedback from machine to designer to program we envision a substantial contribution to the curriculum and in methods of constructing the curriculum. There is no reason why much of what is learned in the process of studying the teaching machine and its potentiality should not feed back to help the general improvement of the curriculum. As portions of the curriculum are defined in terms of pupil activity, the machine, through its research potentiality, will contribute to a kind of curriculum balance.

The limitations or possibilities of the teaching machine are not fully known at the present time. The educator and the psychologist should be concerned with study of the behavioral and curricular variables rather than with the mechanical aspects of the machine. When we know these, we can dictate what we want the machine to do and then work with the engineer trained in electronics and mechanics to design and construct the machine. It is too early to know just how far we can go into the development of the complex cognitive processes (e.g., thinking and problem solving) with such devices. At present it is relatively easy to teach rules for problem solving but more difficult to teach problem solving per se. However, it seems reasonable that complex electronic machines, with their mammoth storage and memory facilities, can be modified to teach these cognitive behaviors as we come to understand the processes involved.

At this writing the prophecy that by 1960 there would be a teaching machine in every classroom has not been fulfilled. We are moving slowly in this regard, perhaps because of inertia, perhaps because we are cautious, or perhaps because we are suspicious and possibly a little threatened. From the standpoint of curriculum balance, we must recognize that the machine does have its negative values. It cannot, at present, provide the flexibility of the tutor; it is limited in its adaptability to the higher mental processes; it cannot handle controversial material; and it is not adaptable in any manner or means for the teaching of social behavior and nonverbal interaction with the environment.

Curriculum balance will be achieved by relegating some of these behaviors to automatic teaching, thereby giving the machine a supplementary role to the teaching function as we now know it. Thus the teacher can help pupils develop social behavior, handle controversial material and argument, and develop creative ability and problem solving skills, the absence of which are potential sources of imbalance in the curriculum.

Motivation, Talent and Creativity

A prime concern in building an effective curriculum is to provide for the pupil's readiness. Within this term is embodied the core of psychological influences that prepare the pupil to profit from experience. His readiness for any learning experience is his present level of development resulting from the cumulative effect and interaction of maturation and learning that prepare him for further learning. We commonly think of the developmental tasks within this context.

It is easy to see that most of the decisions about the curriculum must be made against the backdrop of readiness factors. A major consideration is, "How to adapt to individual differences?" It is within this orientation that we decide such matters as the level of difficulty and the kind of material to be presented; the kind and number of curricula to be offered;

whether to group pupils and, if so, in what kind of group; and whether or not to accelerate advanced pupils.

The pressures for such adaptation have varied from one era to another. Age-grading has been with us for some time, on the assumption that age is related to and is a good index of readiness. We have tried to improve on this procedure. At one time the ungraded program was advocated for part of the pupil's school experience; at another time the benefits to be derived from grouping pupils were emphasized. Currently, one of the pressures appears to be in the direction of considering the exceptional child, particularly the mentally retarded and the gifted. Imbalance can easily occur if we direct our attention only to one or the other of the extreme groups, just as it may occur if we consider the average child exclusively. Although we recognize the importance of both groups, the present discussion will be limited to the recent developments in the study of the gifted child. This is of particular importance since a fundamental value of our form of education is that all individuals should have the opportunity of going as far as their abilities will permit. That this is not the case at present is demonstrated by the fact that only about 60 percent of those capable of going to college do so.

Recent evidence is throwing new light on the nature of "giftedness." The emergent definition may have major implications for the curriculum. Most individuals, lay persons and scientists alike, have accepted the assumptions that IQ and talent or giftedness were linearly related, and that talent was more or less restricted to the realm of artistic endeavor. It is now becoming clear that these assumptions are not completely adequate in the identification of giftedness. Common illustrations are those of the so-called "late bloomers" (such as Franklin Roosevelt and Winston Churchill) whose talents were not easily recognized upon entrance to college or during their years in college. Similarly, in a study by Roe,[15] it was shown that among a group of eminent scientists some did not have outstanding school records.

Other data [16] indicate that among a group of subjects, all of whom had high IQ's as children, there were two distinctly separate groups, one successful and the other less so. In the latter group were those who failed to extend their education beyond high school. They were employed in skilled and low-level management positions, while the former were in professional occupations. Both groups were equally satisfied in their jobs. The distinction between the two groups seemed to be in their need for achievement as revealed by their background and interests. The principal determining factors in the development of this need were in their backgrounds; particularly important was socioeconomic status. Other factors included a home atmosphere capable of affording the child many opportunities for development, a generally accelerating atmosphere with many books and hobbies. The education of the parents beyond high school was also a factor.

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[15] A. Roe. *The Making of a Scientist.* New York: Dodd, Mead and Co., 1953.

[16] L. M. Terman and M. H. Oden. *The Gifted Child Grows Up.* Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1956.

One difficulty in being able to predict and identify talent or giftedness is the difference in values that may be found among schools. Some, for example, define good performance in terms of memory skills, others in terms of athletic prowess. Still others are dedicated to dogmatic formulations of absolutes.

Curricular imbalance has occurred as a result of stereotyped definitions of talent, creativity and giftedness, thereby limiting our adequacy in educating the child with these abilities. First, we have taken intelligence to be a necessary prerequisite to learning to think, thus shifting our attention from the view that perhaps intelligence, broadly defined as thinking, can be taught. We have somehow lost sight of the fact that intelligence is predictive of performance only insofar as our present teaching methods are concerned. Accordingly, we have given insufficient attention to the search for new methods. Second, by restricting the identification of talent to pupils with high IQ's we have been blinded to the identification of other factors of greater importance at higher levels of intelligence than mere increase in IQ. These are the noncognitive factors including motivations, interests and values. Third, we often think of talent in terms of achievement in the fine arts, drawing us away from talent as it occurs in other fields of endeavor, such as science.

Thus, it appears that a proper concern of the school is one of influencing the pupil to strive toward progressively more significant goals. This phenomenon is not the same as motivation in the commonly accepted sense of a teacher-applied technique, but is the development of a *need for achievement*. The evidence [17] shows that this need can be learned through experiences that encourage early independence and initiative, that permit the child opportunity to speak up for himself without feeling guilty or without submitting condescendingly to authority, and that develop feelings of importance as an individual rather than subordination to the loyalties of the family unit. These, to be effective, must be experienced in a setting that provides concurrently for the security of warmth and affection. While dictatorial policies may be used in decisions

[17] D. C. McClelland, J. W. Atkinson, R. A. Clark and E. L. Lowell. *The Achievement Motive*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953.

for which the child has not reached the appropriate level of maturity, the parents still act in a way that highlights the importance of the child's individuality. These control patterns have been substantiated as related to the development of the need for achievement in a comparison of two subcultures within our society.[18]

Although these findings, related to the achievement need, indicate the factors that function within the family, it seems reasonable to expect that a consideration of similar factors in the curriculum will tend to encourage the development of striving behavior so important to the fulfillment of talent. It is easy to visualize the optimistic attitude and striving behavior of a pupil in a classroom in which the teacher establishes a climate of real respect for the judgments, interests and decisions of the pupil. In contrast with this would be the docile, plodding behavior of the pupil hacking away at his subjects in a classroom in which the teacher is concerned with little else than the satisfaction of his own needs (maintaining rigid discipline, following "the book" to the letter, extreme neatness, and the like). A reasonable conjecture at this point is that these experiences, early in the educational career of the child, would be as important as those in the family. The development of such motivational factors appears to be worthy of serious attention in the curriculum.

There is evidence growing out of research in school situations which should be most convincing to the educator concerning the importance of the nonmotivational factors in the development of creativity. These data come from a program of research conducted by Getzels and Jackson [19, 20] at the University of Chicago. Their studies were concerned with two groups of adolescents: a high IQ group of pupils who were in the top 20 percent in IQ measures and in the bottom 20 percent in creativity measures; and a high creativity group of pupils selected because they were in the bottom 20 percent in IQ and in the top 20 percent in creativity measures. Among the interesting findings was this: both groups were equally superior in academic performance to the school population as a whole. Under other circumstances the latter group would have been identified as "overachievers," heretofore stigmatized in many places as being the result of maladjustment. However, the data indicate that at

[18] F. L. Strodtbeck. "Family Interaction, Values and Achievement." In: David C. McClelland and others. *Talent and Society: New Perspectives in the Identification of Talent.* New York: D. Van Nostrand Co., 1958.

[19] J. W. Getzels and P. W. Jackson. "The Meaning of Giftedness: An Examination of An Expanding Concept." *Phi Delta Kappan,* November 1958. p. 75-78.

[20] J. W. Getzels and P. W. Jackson. "The Highly Creative and Highly Intelligent Adolescent: An Attempt at Differentiation." Paper read at the American Psychological Association convention, Washington, D.C., September 1958.

least one alternative explanation is possible, namely, that creativity may account for some kinds of overachieving as presently defined. Perhaps a new definition is needed.

The two groups did differ in other ways. With respect to the manner of cognitive functioning, the creative adolescents tried new techniques, were inventive, were not afraid to stray from the customary procedures, and took risks in thinking through solutions to problems. The high IQ adolescent, on the other hand, tended to stay with the usual solutions, never straying to the uncertainty of the unknown. With respect to values, the creative group was more unconventional and original, while the high IQ group in general tended to conform to the values of their teachers and to accept the more conventional values. It is little wonder that in the same study the high IQ group stood out as being the one teachers adjudged more desirable than the average student, while the high creative group did not achieve this dubious distinction!

Like Getzels and Jackson, I believe that the view of Guilford neatly sums up the implication for curriculum balance of the current emphasis in research on talent and creativity. He says:

> In tests of convergent thinking there is almost always one conclusion or answer that is regarded as unique, and thinking is to be channeled or controlled in the direction of that answer. . . . In divergent thinking, on the other hand, there is much searching about or going off in various directions. . . . Rejecting the old solution and striking out in some new direction is necessary (to creative thinking), and the resourceful organism will probably succeed.
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> [Education] has emphasized abilities in the area of convergent thinking and evaluation, often at the expense of development in the area of divergent thinking. We have attempted to teach students how to arrive at "correct" answers that our civilization has taught us are correct. This is convergent thinking. . . . Outside the arts we have generally discouraged the development of divergent thinking abilities, unintentionally but effectively.[n]

Career Choice

A perennial focal point of pressure is that of occupational demand. Each decade has its own peculiar personnel requirements as a result of technological advances and of changes in supply and demand of trained personnel. In one decade pressures may be toward increasing the number of doctors, in another that of increasing the number of teachers. Today it is toward increasing the number of scientists. The pressure that gets consideration may be only roughly related to the actual shortage, e.g., teachers of the elementary and secondary schools are in as short supply as any professional group, yet the need for scientists has captured the interest and attention of people to a greater extent. When these pressures arise, they are often based on current needs, or on those which appear to be momentarily important, without consideration for the *projected* needs of the individual or of society. By submitting to the pressure there is the possibility that we may be demanding, informally, that pupils take up occupations that are incompatible with their interests, self-concept and general readiness.

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[n] J. P. Guilford. *A Revised Structure of Intellect.* Reports from the Psychological Laboratory, No. 19. Los Angeles: University of Southern California, April 1957. p. 6-7, 9.

Another influence toward imbalance in the curriculum may result when a vague notion, for example, that "science is important" (growing out of the occupational demand for scientists), becomes translated into an increased emphasis on mathematics, physics and chemistry in one school and on something quite different in another. In both cases, that of career choice and of curriculum construction, decisions are often made on a superficial analysis of the pressures in question. Oftentimes the merits of a new proposal are accepted without trying to achieve a clarity of definition, purposes, and ways by which such purposes might be attained. The importance of this pressure should be viewed primarily from the standpoint of the pupil's career choice and of consequent curricular implications.

The decision to enter a specific vocation is one of the most important in the pupil's lifetime. This is easy to understand when we know what a vocation means to the individual. There is no other part of our active lives in which so much time is invested, nor is there any other activity that has the potentiality for satisfying so great a number of needs. Each vocation has its unique pattern of living as well as its characteristic demands on the individual's skills, capacities and energy. One's immediate associates, and often his closest associates, are those met within the occupation. Very often there are differences in the standards established for individual behavior, e.g., the strict demands once made of the teacher in contrast to the greater freedom permitted the actor.

Even the language one uses may be peculiar to a particular occupation. Vocations are one of the most influential determinants of social class. They also provide individuals with a way of benefiting the rest of society and posterity. This may be seen in the case of the elementary school teacher who helps to mold the lives of 30 children in a single class or, more strikingly, to be a major influence on 30 man-years during the course of a single year with a single class. In addition to affecting income, the vocation affects the individual's daily working hours, leisure time, and contacts with others. In making his vocational choice these considerations must be weighed carefully and with understanding of the pupil. If the choice is not consistent with his self-concept, he can only meet his job with conflict and frustration. Such a decision is not to be made lightly. The school must be concerned with the dynamics of behavior that are involved in vocational choice.

An important change has been occurring in our views about the selection of a vocation, consistent with the orientation previously presented. There is a movement away from the idea of matching personal characteristics with job requirements, a rather mechanical procedure at best. The trend is to think in terms of vocational development as a process beginning in the very early school years (or even earlier) and culminating in a decision or a series of decisions.[22] This view is a far cry from the pressures of becoming a skilled worker, a clerical worker, an engineer, or a doctor because of the urgency of the moment.

There have been many contributions, certain of which [23, 24, 25] are represented in the present discussion, within recent years concerning the choice of a vocation as a developmental process. These studies seem to be saying that the choice of a vocation is an attempt to find a place in an occupation which is consistent with the picture a person has of himself. Particularly important is the need for self-expression in work, i.e., the potential of the occupation to permit the individual to use his abilities and capabilities. We have all known individuals who were frustrated in their occupations because they were unable to use a highly developed skill. The opportunity to use our skills tends to make work interesting. The opportunity to express our interests is related to the occupational field. While it is true that these satisfactions can be achieved in other ways, as for example, through avocations, these are less satisfactory outlets in the long run.

We once viewed career choice as a problem initiated in the adolescent years. Now we view such choice as a concern of the elementary school as well. During the early years the pupil goes through the *growth stage* in vocational development.[26] At that time the foundations of the self-concept are being laid down and the basic personality trends become established. By the time the child is ten years old the attitudes and interests appropriate to his or her sex-role are dominant and relatively stable. Just as important are the other kinds of learning including learning-how-to-learn, discussed elsewhere in this chapter, and learning how to play out the roles of others in various situations. These, together with the process of identification, are the major elements in social learning.

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[22] R. G. Kuhlen. "Adolescence." In: C. W. Harris, editor. *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*. Third edition. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1960.

[23] E. Ginzberg and others. *Occupational Choice: An Approach to a General Theory*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1951.

[24] A. Roe. *The Psychology of Occupations*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1956.

[25] D. E. Super. *The Psychology of Careers*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957.

[26] *Ibid.*

By these means the pupil learns how people in different occupations behave. He learns some of the tasks of the clerk by playing store, he begins to understand the teacher-pupil relationship by playing teacher, and begins to realize some of the advantages and disadvantages of each occupation as he plays at it. He learns that he has certain limitations and to accept these or not, as he profits from his experience. He learns the skills that are so important in social interaction: how to persuade others, how to contribute to a group endeavor, and how to judge others and their reactions to him. Those parts of the self-concept that bring satisfaction are maintained while those that bring failure are rejected and eliminated, then replaced by others. This is the nature of reality testing.

Although the growth period does not stop completely at adolescence, it does appear to diminish, giving way to the time called the *exploratory period.*[27] All personality trends, well established by this time through the childhood experiences, must inevitably have their influence on the outcomes of adolescent experience. The selection of a vocation is a most crucial decision for the adolescent and is one of his major concerns. Accordingly, the processes of role playing, identification and reality testing are turned from the more general patterns of behavior and are focused sharply on occupational choice. The adolescent must now learn to understand himself through a period of self-exploration and to explore opportunities for satisfying his needs in an occupation in which the demands are consistent with his self-concept. He is confronted with a consideration of the emotional settings and emotional satisfactions for various work situations. He wants to know what he can expect from the job as well as what the job expects from him. Other factors that must be considered include the satisfactions offered, the kinds of social relations, and the amount of freedom one can expect.

How very different and how much more complex is the process of vocational development from the traditionally accepted view of occupational choice! A comparison of the implications is striking. The decision is not a momentary one (even from the standpoint of a year or so) but is the result of long years of experience. The responsibility is not just that of the individual but of the society at large, including the school. The concern is not just that of the secondary school but that of the elementary school as well.

[27] *Ibid.*

In a period of changing technological developments in which the occupational requirements cannot easily be foreseen, the best course to follow in order to achieve curriculum balance appears to be one in which the elementary school does its utmost to provide an adequate development of capabilities. Our potential can only be safeguarded by seeing that all pupils develop their talents, however little or great these may be, to their fullest capacity. During the growth period the school should contribute to the development of a flexible and adaptive personality. Both the elementary and the high school must see to it that certain occupations are not devalued. Very often there is a tendency to put a priority on college-trained occupations, followed by managerial and clerical, then by skilled and semiskilled manual occupations. We should, on the other hand, recognize that most pupils will be going into the latter (skilled and semiskilled) occupations. If they have been exposed to unfavorable comparisons of the manual occupations with the "white-collar" jobs, the result will be needless frustration and conflict.

The high school curriculum should include opportunities for a wide variety of exploratory activity in several occupations. In this way the pupil can learn about himself in relation to the demands of a job. He can learn about personnel practices in these occupations, about the relationships between employers and employees, and further test his abilities in a wide range of manual, intellectual and social activities. The balanced curriculum can do much toward reducing the frustration and unhappiness that emerge when there is a discrepancy between aspiration or expectation and reality.

Life Adjustment and Mental Health

In a newspaper quotation given earlier in this chapter, the life adjustment aspect of the curriculum is held in low esteem by some observers. Such critics advocate eliminating this "villain" which seems to them only to steal the teacher's time from more important duties. To these observers, it appears that the pupil's emotional learning can somehow be separated from his academic learning; that academic learning is the hard core and substance of the curriculum while "life adjustment" is soft, unimportant, or irrelevant; and that, of the two, the academic learnings are the responsibility of the school and the emotional learnings are the responsibility of the home or some other agency. The appeals, although loud, are more often than not ungrounded in fact, and the arguments are emotionally loaded. While formal training in life adjustment may not be a responsibility of the school, elimination of a consideration for mental hygiene certainly would be equally irresponsible behavior on the part of school personnel. A balanced curriculum must make some provision for the promotion of mental health.

There are two ways of viewing this pressure. One is that life adjustment may be considered basically a study of human behavior. If so, it then becomes a discipline in its own right, and the pupil may be trained in this body of knowledge and methodology just as in any other discipline. A question still remains, however, whether or not society considers training in the behavioral sciences important enough to be a part of the elementary or secondary school curriculum. For the present, this question must be left unanswered. The second point is that development toward total maturity is a necessary objective if we are to achieve balance in the curriculum. Accordingly, neglect of development in social and personal adjustment leads to imbalance. This is the orientation that will be considered in the remainder of this section.

One difficulty in dealing with the concept of life adjustment and mental health is in the wide range of definitions. These encompass the prevention of mental illness, at one extreme, and at the other, the development of capacities for personal happiness and social usefulness.[28] While both are important, it is the latter that will be most commonly encountered by the teacher in day-to-day activity.

An understanding of the individual's behavior from his point of view is a way of directing our attention to the notion of the self-concept. This concept is learned as the pupil explores his environment and tests his capacities in the classroom. He soon reacts to himself as a stimulus. If he meets with regular success and satisfaction, in all probability the result will be a feeling of adequacy and self-confidence. He will be better able to meet an occasional failure by attacking the problem directly rather than by giving up immediately. He tends to set new and progressively higher goals in a realistic fashion in the sense that these goals are capable of being achieved. Individuals who are self-accepting are also more accepting of others, are able to work cooperatively, and are oriented toward the task at hand without hostility. All these are characteristics leading to productive, efficient individuals working to capacity and unhampered by the burden of low self-esteem. Pupils who meet with frequent failure are in large part the opposites of their counterparts previously described. Constant failure tends to make the individual less able to meet new failures. Such pupils may be boisterous in attempts to compensate for their feelings of inadequacy; they may withdraw from a challenging task for fear of further failure; they may attempt to avoid responsibility by feigning stupidity; or they may withdraw into the world of daydreams where to them the fantasy of success becomes real.

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[28] R. M. Strang. "Mental Health." In: C. W. Harris, editor. *Encyclopedia of Educational Research.* Third edition. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1960.

Unfortunately, failure to learn is a common experience for many pupils. If no regard is given to this matter the school may, unknowingly, contribute to feelings of inadequacy and disturbed interpersonal relationships, for the consequence of continued frustration is aggression. Very often the aggression is directed toward the school, in the form of vandalism and in premature leaving of school. Early dropouts may stem from dissatisfaction with school and may negatively affect the later adjustment of pupils.

There are other areas besides failure that can influence mental health in the classroom. Pupils are frequently placed under undue stress resulting from threat or other extreme motivation. Under these circumstances their behavior is characterized by the primitive, stereotyped and disorganized responses that we expect of emotional behavior, rather than the rational and integrated behavior necessary for problem solving. Competition, a commonly used technique, often leads to anxiety. Some pupils soon recognize that they cannot always win. Eventually they may learn not to care for the rewards to be gained from competition, and it loses its motivating effect. Competition is most detrimental when the pupil's self-esteem is broken down through failure. However, competition can be effective if judiciously used, e.g., by grouping pupils so that all have an *equal* chance of success. Very often the diversity of cultures within the classroom confronts the pupil with a conflict of values. For the well-integrated pupil these differences will probably have little effect. However, for the pupil who is already unstable they may have further effect on his instability, manifested in severe dissatisfaction with school or home, or in some cases by patterns of delinquent behavior. Whether the pupil can avoid the ill effects of any of these influences for even a temporary period depends on the adequacy of his earlier experiences.

From this discussion it would appear that there are several reasonable objectives of life adjustment to which the school can contribute in order to avoid curriculum imbalance. Schools can provide pupils with an opportunity to progress successfully to increasingly difficult and challenging goals, thereby enhancing the pupil's *self-esteem*. They can show the pupil that goals are not always immediately attainable and that when failure is experienced, he can profit from his failure and thereby develop *frustration-tolerance*. They can show the pupil that his own capacities may be developed for meeting his own demands and for contributing to society, thereby helping him *to face reality.* Helping pupils to channel hostility into socially acceptable activities, to work under stress, to have the capacity to make adjustments, and to find security and happiness are other important objectives.

In accomplishing these ends the school can do much by eliminating practices which tend to cause pupils to feel inferior. The first years of school must be recognized as strategic ones, for the teacher's behavior and the influences of the classroom climate may have prolonged effect on the pupil's motivations and adjustments. Modifications of existing curricula can be offered, adapted to the many needs of the pupil, including practice in the techniques of adjustment. If it can do nothing more, the school can make a contribution by providing consistency that is often lacking in the home. Pupils have been found, for example, to need well-defined limits. Both permissiveness and limits are needed for healthy adjustment, and the limits must be clear and consistent. At the other extreme, some schools may find it profitable to benefit by the work of Ojemann[29] and his associates. They have demonstrated that it is possible, through teaching the causes of behavior and giving practice in understanding these principles as they apply to himself, to enhance the pupil's adequacy and adjustment.

The reader may believe that we have presented a favorable case for the consideration of mental health in achieving curriculum balance. The caution must be made, however, that our presentation has been outlined with the intent of highlighting one or two important areas. Many other areas must be considered. Those concerned with curriculum development must recognize that methods of helping emotionally disturbed children cannot be applied in the classroom. For this group the teacher's primary function is referral to the personnel concerned. The methods of psychotherapy and education are considerably different. The contribution of the curriculum to life adjustment will be primarily that of fostering mental health in support of the learning skills, attitudes and knowledge that comprise the bulk of the instructional program. These elements of the curriculum must be learned *effectively.* The pupil's success in these tasks is important for the present; their mastery is essential for his future.

In summary, when a societal need is identified, the school is often tempted to meet this need by some change in its activities. Many such needs today seem to be directly related to the effectiveness of the curriculum. When they lead to the incorporation of untested innovations, the danger of sabotaging the curriculum and of causing imbalance is present. The school should no more exert itself to match some unexamined standard than should the larger society. This danger can be effectively illustrated by the current pressure to "keep up with the Russians." A decision for an immediate curricular change must be tempered by a judicious evaluation of the effects to be caused by the change.

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[29] R. H. Ojemann, E. E. Levitt, W. H. Lyle and M. F. Whiteside. "The Effects of a 'Causal' Teacher-training Program and Certain Curricular Changes on Grade School Children." *Journal of Experimental Education* 24: 95-114; December 1955.

In this chapter an attempt has been made to highlight certain areas in which pressures seem to exist. Each of these pressures has the potential of throwing the instructional program into disequilibrium, unless such proposals are evaluated and tested in terms of the basic principles of human growth, development and learning. In working toward the objective of helping the pupil grow toward maturity, the school cannot, through its curriculum, afford to emphasize skills and topical knowledge to the exclusion of developing the thought processes and emotional adjustment. As in the case of too quick and too complete response to pressure, such emphasis can easily lead to imbalance.

This review foreshadows a new and constructive relationship between the educator and the behavioral sciences in which his profession is rooted. Systematic investigations should be made of *how* children learn as well as of *what* they learn. Operational analyses and fact-finding activity concerning the curriculum and its products and effects should give an empirically based orientation that may avoid curriculum imbalance. The school and society in general can hardly afford a lesser alternative.

CHAPTER SIX

Balance and the Selection of Content

GORDON GARDNER • LEONARD GRINDSTAFF • EVELYN WENZEL

THESE ARE indeed exciting times in curriculum work. Many groups and persons, from the federal government to the man on the street, are making their opinions and influences felt with regard to what the schools are, or are not, offering. This is evidenced by the following miscellaneous samplings from the press:

During its first year the National Defense Education Act has certified nearly $40,000,000 for purchase of instructional materials to improve the teaching of science, mathematics, and foreign languages.

When Vice-Admiral Hyman Rickover appeared on "Meet the Press," audience response was largest in the 14-year history of the program—10,000 requests for copies of the interview.

The College Entrance Examination Board will include a writing sample as part of its examination for those colleges desiring it.

One school system labels as "food for thought" content of mathematics, science, English, history, and foreign language courses. Electives are called "desserts" and are used mainly to tempt the appetites of students who are not college bound.

Gallup polls show that adults favor more homework for both elementary and high school students; students wanting more homework, however, are in the minority.

The Council for Basic Education has spent $34,000 to define a basic curriculum and to present this information in a citizen's handbook.

Scholarships are available to elementary and secondary teachers who will attend summer programs on Asia offered by 31 colleges.

A college president laments that high school graduates "have not thought enough, if at all."

How to provide balance between sciences and the humanities, between required and elective courses, between subject matter and skills courses, between college preparatory and vocational programs, in-school and out-of-school assignments—all these questions are confronting educators, if not for the first time, with special force and vigor just now.

In the face of such pressures, principals, teachers and others responsible for the education of children and youth must make decisions on the action level. Some decide opportunistically by giving in at points at which pressure is greatest. Some are proceeding tentatively and carefully in an experimental spirit. Others, after careful study and research, are making decisions with assurance; while still others, head-in-sand fashion, are categorically resisting pressures to change anything from the way it is.

What Is Curriculum Content?

Curriculum content provides opportunities for students to learn and to make use of *subject matter, skills and processes,* and *attitudes, values and appreciations.* The various kinds of content may be described as follows:

1. *Subject matter* is material organized for learning and teaching from the various disciplines: history, physics, sociology, French, etc. It has been traditionally organized by scholarly experts in the way that to them seemed logical. Problems in utilization of subject matter such as the following are characteristic of this kind of content:

a. The problem of *rapid change,* creating needs for additions and deletions as well as for frequent revision to bring subject matter up-to-date (A science book is out-of-date before it comes off the press.)

b. The problem of *controversial material* (Shall we teach about religion in school? Sex? Communism? etc.)

c. The problem of *sequential arrangement* within the school program (Shall American history or geography be taught before that of other countries? Simple cultures before complex ones?)

d. The problem of inclusion as part of the *curricular, cocurricular* or *extracurricular* programs (Should driver education be taught during or after school? Should an "adult interest" activity, such as fund raising, be carried on in school?).

2. *Skills and processes,* as curriculum content, may be seen as including:

a. The so-called "basic" skills of communication and number, traditionally taught as "subject matter" called reading, writing and arithmetic, but used primarily as tools or skills in all curriculum areas

b. The more complex processes not identified with any particular body of subject matter: problem solving, critical thinking, human relationships, citizenship, creativity, etc.

Here, problems of balance grow out of controversies concerning the relative responsibility assumed by the elementary and secondary schools for teaching the basic skills, e.g., the proportion of time spent in learning versus that spent in using what is learned.

3. *Attitudes, values and appreciations* as curriculum content present unique problems that result from the fact that they are acquired *in the process of living and learning,* whether or not schools consciously teach, or students consciously learn them. Pressures to teach or not to teach intercultural understanding, responsibility, patriotism, etc., continuously plague those responsible for deciding upon curriculum content.

Subject matter, skills and attitudes are, of course, interrelated. That is to say, none can be taught or learned in isolation. Each, however, can be seen and talked about as being *primarily* of concern at a given time for a given purpose. French is a body of subject matter for purposes of scheduling in the school program; it may be seen as a communication skill and taught as such by a teacher who has this goal in mind; what happens in the French classroom affects attitudes toward languages, toward learning, and in some cases perhaps toward the French people. Social studies, as subject matter, includes an extensive body of factual material, while skills of social interaction cannot be taught in isolation from attitudes about and appreciation for people. Reading can never be taught adequately if only the *skill* is built; for unless reading is *valued,* it serves only the minimum utilitarian purposes. A subject such as industrial arts, taught primarily as a skill, offers opportunities for providing aesthetic experiences.

All three of these aspects of curriculum content have presented problems in the past, and today all show the effects of recent explosive changes. For example, subject matter in textbooks is often outdated by the time it is published, and much information learned in school is "historical" by the time a student graduates from high school. Goodlad points out that "general" communication skills are inadequate in a society made up of many different groups, each with its own subtle communication system.[1] Porter calls attention to the fact that the home and school must now compete with television and other mass media in influencing opinions and tastes of the young. For example, political opinions are influenced by news commentators, and reading by parents to their children suffers by comparison with television performances.[2]

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[1] John I. Goodlad. "Societal Pressures and the Curriculum." *Educational Forum* 23: 19-39; November 1958.

[2] William E. Porter. "Mass Communication and Education." *National Elementary Principal* 37: 12-16; February 1958.

Pressures for Changes in Content

Pressures Exercised by Individuals

Today the educational thoughts of James B. Conant and Admiral Rickover represent examples of two sources of pressures bearing on content selection. Both these men, although they have far different points of view, are playing important roles in the determination of curriculum content. Which is "right"? Is either "right"? Is either a compromise position? To answer these questions, value judgments are needed.

Dr. Conant recommends that the curriculum requirements for graduation from the comprehensive high school should include the following: four years of English, three years of social studies, one year of mathematics, and one year of science. In addition, for the academically talented students, approximately 15 to 20 percent, Dr. Conant recommends four years of mathematics, three years of science, four years of foreign language, four years of English, and three years of social studies.[3]

Admiral Rickover contends that the comprehensive high school fosters a milieu of mediocrity that stifles the academically talented. He further contends that "nothing short of a complete reorganization of American education preceded by a revolutionary reversal of educational aims, can equip us for winning the educational race with the Russians."[4]

Pressures from State and Federal Legislatures

During periods of crisis state and federal legislatures greatly influence content selection of the curriculum of the public schools. Our federal government recently enacted Public Law 864, the National Defense Education Act, which provides financial support for study of selected subjects in the public school curriculum, namely, mathematics, science and modern foreign languages. This is but one of many types of pressures from the federal government and is matched by similar efforts from the state legislatures.

It is important to recognize that built into the National Defense Education Act are financial supports also for the expansion and improvement of the counseling and guidance services of the public schools, as well as the training programs in these fields in the colleges and universities. Herein lies the strange dichotomy of a national program which encourages students to enroll in three selected fields of subject matter and at the same time strengthens the counseling and guidance programs which assist students in selecting the subjects most appropriate for them in all fields.

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[3] James B. Conant. *The American High School Today.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1959. p. 47.

[4] Richard I. Miller. "Admiral Rickover on American Education." *Journal of Teacher Education* 10: 14; September 1959.

Vice-Admiral Hyman Rickover. "Education in the Nuclear Age." Speech delivered at the dedication of Nuclear Power Training School, United States Naval Submarine Base, New London, Connecticut, December 6, 1957.

Professional educators are encouraged by the financial support for the three fields of mathematics, science and modern foreign languages, but they are aware of the need for such support of the other fields in the total curriculum. If and when a powerful influence, such as federal or state support, extends the teaching of any one field, it is dramatically important for this area to arrive at a balance in the curriculum with other areas of instruction.

Pressures from Scholars Adding New Content

At the same time that such bodies as the state legislatures and the Congress are attempting to give direction to the curriculum of the public schools, scholars from many disciplines are adding new knowledge, skills and appreciations to all fields of subject matter. Science alone has created more new knowledge in one generation, even in the past 20 years, than has accumulated to that date throughout all the history of mankind. Or, in terms of the individual learner, it is estimated that one person could study one subject for a lifetime and only begin to know a fraction of what is known today about that subject.

Such pressures, of course, may create imbalance. But strong pressures tend to invite strong counterpressures and so eventually we see the horizon again level off, temporarily perhaps, but somehow reassuringly mobile. One observer of the current scene states, "Values take their richness from the tensions between each man and his society. . . ."[5]

Another writer treats the same idea in an interestingly different context:

> There is a striking parallel to this compound concern for balances that contribute to a dynamic equilibrium, on the creative artist's construction of a "mobile." Forms, weights, and spacings as well as light, shadow and color are all involved as independent variables. Balance and effectiveness of free movement in the mobile are contingent on the way all these matters are considered and related in a total arrangement which maintains a dynamic equilibrium when suspended. Imbalance can be corrected . . . in accord with the *scientific*

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[5] Jacob Bronowski. "The Values of Science." In: A. I. Maslow, editor. *New Knowledge in Human Values*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1959. p. 63.

basis of balance. The test of balance is a free, swinging equilibrium, but the creative artist who designs and develops a mobile is also concerned with a significant and satisfying arrangement of forms and substances with dynamic *aesthetic* balance.[8]

It is conceivable that persons who are being pressured may not be able to take the scientist's view that tensions are interesting, or share the artist's pleasure in maintaining equilibrium by using the principles of aesthetic balance. Assuming, however, that pressures creating imbalances are inevitable and are not necessarily undesirable, we might raise questions suggested by some changes already effected, and then examine a process for dealing with pressures for change.

Some Changes in Content Already Effected

Mathematics

We are approaching the time when one individual will find it impossible to learn all the new knowledge that is being added in any one of the numerous subject matter fields. Our generation has experienced a scientific revolution, added to an older industrial revolution, that has tended to make mathematics and science more closely related. Prior to World War II it was sufficient for a student to move slowly through the four fundamental processes with whole numbers, then learn these same processes in making calculations with fractions, decimals and percentages. This once required eight years in the elementary grades.

Following this the student completed a year of algebra, which introduced equations and a new symbol system of letters instead of numbers. The learners were thus able to handle larger quantities and infinite numbers. The tenth and final year for most high school students was an introduction to Euclidean geometry, a world of space and dimension, but even then all calculations were made of only one projection with limited dimensions.

Today, in an age of relativity, space and time have become significant relatives, and the concept and use of sets have become increasingly important in mathematics and science. Rapid electronic calculators and digital computers have extended man's capacity to relate an endless number of variables, and this may make a great deal of difference in our content and developmental pattern of mathematics and science for grades one through twelve.

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[8] Laura Zirbes. "Concern for Balance in the Curriculum." *National Elementary Principal* 33: 32-34; May 1954.

We are seeking to enrich and expand the content of our mathematics curriculum for all grade levels. In our elementary arithmetic programs it is not enough to teach today's children to make calculations quickly and accurately. It is equally important to teach them both to solve difficult problems and become increasingly able to state these problems well. Some textbook publishers are attempting to extend the instructional materials to enable the student to learn how to state original problems

Many phases of algebra and geometry, formerly reserved for the ninth and tenth grades, are now taught in the elementary school grades. In some schools the entire year's work in algebra and some parts of geometry are completed in the seventh and eighth grades. This enables students to make greater depth studies in the fields of mathematics, science and related subjects.

Equally important to note is the significant number of students now taking four full years of mathematics from grades nine through twelve. This number is increasing each year and high schools are working closely with colleges and universities to place phases of concept and skill development in mathematics, formerly taught in college, in the upper grades of high school. Experimental studies have shown that the abler students are successfully completing college and university courses in mathematics during their senior year in high school.

Science

Even more impressive have been the changes in the content and curriculum designs in the fields of science. Historically, the public schools have slowly introduced the young child to a world of life sciences, beginning with his immediate world of plants and animals. Throughout the programs in reading and social studies for the primary grades, materials were introduced on the weather and changing seasons of the year. Only a limited amount of material on health education was included in this program.

Prior to the 1950's, science generally had not been given a place in the elementary school curriculum of sufficient importance to warrant treatment as a separate subject matter field. Furthermore, the physical sciences were not a part of the science program for the primary grades. Textbooks and related instructional materials were somewhat limited in scope.

Today, we are introducing the kindergarten and primary grade students to the complete range of physical and life sciences. Space ships, rockets and atoms have opened new worlds to our children, creating an interest and motivation to learn science on all grade levels. Textbooks are now available for all grades, with sequentially organized materials which move from the foundation facts to the concepts and generalizations appropriate for each maturity level.

Basic aspects of chemistry and physics were once reserved for the final two years of high school and elected by a limited number of college-bound students. Such elements, however, are now distributed throughout the grades of both the elementary and junior high schools. We are striving for a scientific literacy, designed to prepare all students to live more successfully in an age of science. We are attempting to give students an opportunity to acquire a grasp of the almost limitless knowledge available in our times.

In several college and university centers throughout the United States, including the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Yale, and the Universities of Maryland, Colorado and Illinois, leading educators, mathematicians and scientists are working to produce new mathematics and science programs for the schools. The National Science Foundation has engaged the interest and assistance of numerous persons in public school systems and of college and university professors in furthering this work. Perhaps the most significant aspect of this total program has been the procedures followed in providing an in-service education experience for many classroom teachers.

New Personal Skills

Tremendous sums are now being spent on research in the areas of individual and group skills. American business and industry completed more than 5000 studies prior to World War II, and many more since that date, in the single area of leadership skills. It has become vitally necessary, especially in a democracy, to develop the skills of being a good leader or an informed follower.

For years we apparently assumed that there were inherent qualities of leadership with which selected individuals were born. Throughout the nineteenth and twentieth centuries we accepted this "single man" theory of leadership and searched for the particular person, rather than create educational programs designed to develop the leadership skills within each person. By 1940, as the great need of manpower for the war effort increased, we slowly turned to our present extensive and rewarding programs for leadership development.

Although the public schools cannot match the research facilities and resources of business and industry to study these particular skills, nevertheless the public schools' program has been greatly improved in this area. Once we were free of the fatal notion that leadership is an endowment of only a few, we began to make endless application of the science of leadership to all age groups. This idea, too, has changed the content and the organizational arrangements of the curriculum of grades one through twelve.

Social Studies and Social Sciences

Social studies in the elementary grades were once only a limited abbreviation and simplification of the social sciences taught in the senior high schools, colleges and universities. Whereas we now have the social sciences of anthropology, sociology, psychology, political science, economics, history, philosophy and geography as sources of content for the social studies of the elementary school grades, we once had only geography, civics and history. Furthermore, the leadership skills to be taught in the social studies were incidental to the subject matter or other content to be included.

We once taught history and geography for the first time in the fourth grade and civics was confined to only the eighth or ninth grades. Today we teach social studies from the kindergarten throughout the elementary grades, and, in addition, the social sciences in the junior and senior high schools. We are concerned about the student's skill in living effectively with small and large groups, within and outside the classroom. Children and youth must gain proficiency in decision making, sometimes as leaders and in other situations as followers.

Organizational arrangements, techniques of teaching, and room environments in a modern classroom reflect this desire to make the student a participant in small or large decision making situations. Instead of having the source of all learning restricted to the teacher, the modern classroom has a variety of sources of information and knowledge. In this way the motivation for learning is shifted to the student, and skills as leader or follower become an outgrowth of the total learning situation.

Throughout the elementary grades, each student's leadership skills can be improved in the laboratory of the classroom. Also, in the total school-community, the student continues to learn, through student government, club activities, and sports, the individual and group skills so necessary in modern democratic living.

In the junior and senior high schools the social studies are deepened and broadened in all areas of the eight fields of the social sciences. Particular content fields within the social sciences are offered to students as a basis for an occupation or avocation. Some are interested in psychology, others in sociology, and still others in international relations or in American institutions and government.

Business Skills

When we turn from the social to the mechanical skills, we have an even greater expansion and increase in content for the public school curriculum. These new skills are in many of the subject matter fields, such as industrial arts, homemaking and business education. In business education, for example, we have a close working relationship with the world of business and industry, in which automation is bringing significant changes.

In a special issue of the *Business Education Forum,*[7] E. Dana Gibson summarizes some of the advances in automation and indicates their significance to the business education curriculum. He refers to *Time*'s prediction that large computers would some day be no larger than a shoe box and sell for several hundred dollars rather than many thousands of dollars; also, he refers to the recently announced transistor-substitute which is so good that it can add two figures in a 500 millionth of a second.

Dr. Gibson states that while programing will never be eliminated, the universal programing language is not far away. No longer will there be any reason for office workers not to understand and make use of computers to solve their problems. Even more important, these computers will have the ability to do several problems simultaneously. This means that office workers at several stations can insert problems into the computer at the same time in order to obtain answers. There will be no more waiting for computer time to be assigned to a worker.

A new concept that has recently been advanced is the "consolidated file" method of doing business. Instead of operating an accounting department on an accounts receivable or payable basis, all information about a customer will be filed together, such as the accounts receivable data on his account, the goods he has ordered, the credit ratings on him, and the like. A file-oriented business will not be operated in the same way as in present offices.

Finally, in his article, Dr. Gibson refers to the future possibility of building a computer that can learn from its mistakes. This opens up a great vista of future capabilities for the machine. If the ability is projected very far, much present routine work can be turned over to automation. Decision making and corrective requirements may be turned over to the computer.

These changes and others to come will bring many new mechanical skills to the business education department. Likewise, other changes will bring new and increased skills to the industrial arts and homemaking departments. Throughout the curriculum we must continuously accept the responsibility of teaching newer skills and newer ways of working in American business and industry.

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[7] E. Dana Gibson. "Automation and Business Education." *Business Education Forum* 14: 11-13; January 1960.

The preceding illustrations have related to curriculum areas which have been noticeably affected by pressures for new content and new placement of educational experiences. These examples are largely taken from the secondary school toward which, in recent years at least, most of the pressure for change has been directed. However, inevitably these changes will have implications for the elementary school as well.

These changes in content and shifts in grade placement have demonstrated that, for some pupils at least, such changes can be made. There remain the prior questions: Should such changes be made, and what is the evidence of the need for change? If the changes are made, are they accomplished at the expense of other values, social or individual? Is it clear that these changes have been subjected to careful scrutiny, taking into account the basic values and goals of American education? Are they to be considered permanent changes, or are they alterations prompted by temporary needs and demands?

These questions are not answered at this point in the chapter, but do suggest that care must be exercised by educators as they are involved in curriculum reconstruction. The following are two more elaborate analyses of curriculum changes currently under consideration. This account suggests the complexity of the process that ought to be employed when fundamental shifts in content and grade placement are contemplated.

A Process for Effecting Content Change

Foreign Languages in the Elementary School

Between 1952 and 1956 the number of communities with foreign language programs in elementary schools jumped from 87 to 357. Such an increase has been the result of a combination of psychological, sociological and educational forces. These forces might be identified on a homely level by quoting from such varied sources as the man on the street, the informed layman, the educator and the scholar. Each, in his own way, may support the teaching of foreign languages in the elementary school by citing some such reasons as the following:

1. Parents and public in general want it. We want something better for our children than we had.
2. The "best" schools have it. We want our schools to be modern.
3. Our country eventually will benefit if our children understand other

people better. Foreign language is one way of bringing about this understanding. It will, therefore, be a useful and practical tool.

4. There is "cultural" value in being able to speak and read another language; life is enriched to the extent that one can do this.

5. Starting a language in elementary school builds readiness for its study in high school.

6. Speech apparatus is most flexible at an early age. Starting early may assist more accurate reproduction of speech sounds of a language. Young children apparently can learn a new language as easily and as naturally as their own.

7. Children like a foreign language because it is different from other school subjects and is often taught with an interesting variety of techniques.

8. The elementary school program is flexible enough to add a language; it correlates with other subjects already being taught.

9. Gifted children need the extra challenge and enrichment offered by the opportunity to study a foreign language.

Analyzing values, learning principles, and social pressures. From such an assortment of statements we might make certain inferences about the values held by the people making them, about their assumptions concerning the learning process, and about some of the social pressures and conflicts to which they are being subjected.

1. The school should be responsive to the will of the people.

2. A democratic society believes in the progressive betterment of each generation over the preceding one.

3. Each person is entitled to every opportunity to develop his optimum potential.

4. What children like and enjoy is worthy of study.

5. Many learnings take place simultaneously; that is, we can learn more than one thing at a time.

6. Readiness and interest are factors of prime importance in learning.

7. The American way of life is competitive. Putting on appearances, "keeping up with the Joneses," getting ahead—are all signs of progress.

8. There is status value for an individual to be able to speak, or a school system to offer, a foreign language.

9. Elementary school years are primarily a preparation period for high school.

10. What is useful and "works" is good.

As guides for decision making, these ideas may indeed add to, rather than dissipate, confusion. Further steps need to be taken in the way of asking more specific questions about values, examining assumptions about learning, and facing realities of social pressures.

There are different levels of values here. The first three are so broad and general that no one could argue their importance. But questions need to be asked about their relevance to the immediate problem. Who are "the people" in this situation—a specific pressure group, a vocal minority; an informed minority, or a majority; an indefinable "they"? How significant a contribution can a foreign language make to the perpetuating of the value? Are other means available that are already doing this, or are better able to do it?

Some of these values (7 and 10) are traditionally American, can be historically accounted for and justified, but are frankly controversial in their application today. For example, questions might well be raised as to the practical value of the study of a language in order to communicate with, and therefore better understand, other people. Understanding of other cultures is a complex process. Experiences with the language alone are of doubtful worth. Moreover, the practical value of developing communication skills is referred to as "immature motivation" by one writer:

> More even than an ability to communicate in others' tongue . . . we need to learn to know and to respect the culture of others—their history, their religion, their art, the things they value as their own. . . :[8]

Numbers 7 and 8 are examples of real and potent social pressures that we can intellectually reject, but to which we may be emotionally attached. They are evidence of cultural naïveté and immaturity, perhaps, but we cannot ignore them. We must not, however, let them weigh in too heavily at the point of decision making. Perhaps the recognition that values such as these do often influence our thinking is in itself an important step in putting them in proper perspective. The status value of a foreign language, for example, would go far down on a list of defensible reasons for including it in the curriculum. We might, however, view somewhat differently the role that the introduction of a foreign language might play in raising the status of a minority group in a community.

Numbers 5 and 6 are well-established general learning principles, but need to be examined further in this particular context. There is no clear evidence, for example, that there is any "best" age for beginning foreign language teaching. What is the "best" age seems to be closely related to what purposes are to be served. That learning a skill such as a foreign language in the absence of opportunity to use it makes for quick forgetting is another well-established learning principle that needs to be called to mind at this point. The importance of interest in facilitating learning cannot be argued, but is it sound to support the practice of adding curriculum content because children "like it"?

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[8] Robert F. Goheen. "Essential Tasks." *Education in the Nation's Service*. Essay No. 3. New York: Woodrow Wilson Foundation, 1959. p. 13. ($0.25.)

Number 9 is not only an example of a stereotyped conception of the role of the elementary school, but also cannot be supported by studies made of foreign language teaching. There is some evidence that the study of a language in elementary school with emphasis on preparation for high school study is not worth the time spent on it. For example, Thompson and Hamalainen report that "children who have had six years of instruction in French before entering high school are placed in the second year French class or, in other words, six years of instruction set the child ahead only one year." [9]

Identifying possible purposes. Thus clarifying values and assumptions makes it possible to restate the original list of purposes in somewhat different form. These statements attempt to answer the question: What are some *possible* ends to be served by the addition of this particular body of content to the elementary school curriculum? These may be suggestive:

1. To enable children to learn speech sounds of another language most accurately and easily
2. To communicate effectively with people speaking other languages
3. To read the literature of other cultures
4. To determine interest in and aptitude for language study in high school
5. To improve direct relationships with a foreign group, or groups, within the community
6. To aid in the appreciation and understanding of the totality of other cultures
7. To facilitate international exchange of ideas
8. To contribute to personal cultural enrichment.

Here is indeed a range of possibilities. Some are specific, some very general. Some can be accomplished only by foreign language study, others by many other means. Some seem more appropriate than others for elementary schools. They differ in the degree to which they would "make sense" to children or to adults. Some would have higher priority in the light of the preceding analysis, but all, under certain circumstances, could be justified by reference back to values and assumptions.

It would be helpful to have more research upon which to draw, but few comprehensive, reliable evaluative studies have been made in this area.

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[9] Elizabeth Thompson and Arthur E. Hamalainen. *Foreign Language Teaching in Elementary Schools.* Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a department of the National Education Association, 1958. p. 16.

Some are now under way at the University of Chicago, the University of Minnesota, and in the public schools of Lawrence, Kansas. Even if and when we do have more of such studies, maintaining balance in the face of pressures to add foreign languages to the elementary school curriculum necessitates a further step.

Fact finding and stock taking on the local scene. A look at such a range of possibilities makes it rather obvious that all these purposes cannot be accomplished by a foreign language program in the elementary school. It is necessary to ask now: With which purpose, or purposes, shall we *primarily* be concerned? To answer this question it is necessary to take a look at the community, the school and the people concerned.

Thompson and Hamalainen suggest a survey to collect information such as the following:

> 1. Teachers and consultants who can speak a language adequately, or who are interested in learning and teaching a foreign language
> 2. Parents or laymen who might be available to participate in small group classroom activities, such as cooking, and who would use foreign languages to communicate during such an experience
> 3. Languages spoken in homes as a means of communication
> 4. Families who travel abroad
> 5. Children who now speak a foreign language
> 6. Languages represented in adult Americanization classes
> 7. Foreign students studying in nearby colleges
> 8. Parents interested in learning a language
> 9. Parents interested in having a language taught in elementary schools and their reasons for it.[10]

The compilation and analysis of such information should provide answers to two essential questions: Is there a need for the addition of this particular area of content? What immediate or potential resources are available in the way of people to work in such a program? For, in this case, the wherewithal for "balancing" would seem to lie importantly in the answers to those two questions. To say this is to maintain that it is better to have no foreign language program than one which does not meet the needs of pupils in a particular school, or one that does not have adequate human resources to conduct it successfully.

Once the need and the resources indicate that a foreign language program in some form is desirable, decisions can be made as to which of the purposes can best be served, what language or languages should be taught, what children and grade levels should be involved, what methods should be used, and what time allotment should be devoted to this subject. In other words, the specific details that delineate the exact nature of the program for a particular school can best be worked out in the light of answers to these two basic questions.

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[10] *Ibid.*, p. 36-37.

Decision making (samples of alternate courses of action). Community A, a small town not far from a large university is largely middle class in population, made up of approximately one-third professional families, a third small town businessmen, and the remainder fairly substantial farm-owning families.

A survey reveals: (a) A few families that have traveled or plan to travel abroad, but none of whose members speak a foreign language with any degree of fluency. There are several bilingual families, namely, owners of restaurants. (b) Foreign students from a number of countries enrolled in the university (more from the Near and Far East than from Europe and South America). (c) Most of the professional families would like their children to have some experience with a foreign language. (d) Occasionally enrolled in the school for a year or two are children of foreign parents who are also students. (e) Several teachers with college-course knowledge of French or Spanish; one or two with interest and enthusiasm for traveling and taking special work in foreign language teaching.

What purposes can be served? A major one might be the study of the languages of various cultures in order to add to appreciation and understanding of their totality.

Which children should study the language?

1. Any grade might study a language when a child from another land is a member of the group, but there would be no continuous program for any particluar group. A first grade, for example, might have some experiences with a second language during the year in which a Japanese child is enrolled. The child and his parents are the main resources; there may be a small opportunity for learning some real communication skills through the language, but for children of this age the main interest may well be the experimenting with new sounds. Experiences with Japanese literature, food, home furnishings, etc., would go along with language experiences.

2. Teachers are encouraged to include in the social studies programs a study of cultures when human resources are available to enrich such a study. In the upper grades there might well be a planned, systematic introduction of a language for a year with a particularly interested teacher and foreign resource person.

3. Foreign language clubs, after school or in Saturday classes, may be set up as opportunities are offered or as interest demands, following such a year of study. Here might emerge special interests or aptitudes worthy of note for future guidance purposes. Foreign language study thus serves an enrichment purpose for *some* students. Other enrichment resources are available for others.

Which language should be studied? Since there is no need for a particular one, experiences with many are perhaps indicated. The ones chosen are determined by the resources available. There is much opportunity for comparative language study.

Time allotment? Since language experience becomes more a part of social studies or language arts, there is no problem of adding a "subject."

This is only one solution that might be worked out for *Community A* at a given time. It represents a kind of beginning step, tentative because of the rather remote feeling of need and of the inadequacy of permanent resources. There are many possibilities for modification and expansion as interest develops or as resources appear.

Communities in which other factors are present might be described:

Community B. Wealthy, suburban; much travel abroad, mostly to Europe and South America; parents interested in foreign language learning for themselves and very desirous of having it in the schools; foreign visitors very common, several wealthy foreign families living in community; most children go to college

Community C. Large city, lower class; schools in sections where there is need for improving understanding between foreign and English-speaking groups; several languages represented in homes of the many foreign-speaking people

Community D. Rural, adjacent to Mexican border; migrant workers speaking Spanish work on farms and enroll children in schools; distinct cleavage between Mexican and American children and families.

Here need, resources and purposes to be served are different and so different kinds of programs are planned.

Balancing the foreign language program. It is important to note how closely interrelated are needs, resources and purposes, and how seeking for balance demands working very sensitively with these elements. If the need is acute, then resources *must* be found and time provided in the school program even if something else must be taken out. Much help is now available to school systems through television teachers, newsletters for language teachers from the Modern Language Association, tapes, recordings and government-financed courses and workshops for interested teachers.

If particularly good resources are available, it may be possible to arouse interest and enthusiasm for foreign language instruction in one or two classrooms. If time is available for *some* students, then foreign language instruction may be *one way* of using this time, provided resources are adequate.

A study of foreign language programs that were well established before the 1952 revival of interest indicates that such programs tended to be set up to meet needs growing out of local conditions and to serve rather specific purposes. For example, the program in Cleveland, Ohio, established in 1922, is part of a general enrichment program for gifted children. Wealthy suburban schools in various parts of the country have long offered foreign languages in elementary schools for purposes of "cultural" enrichment and college preparation. It is interesting to note that programs existing for these purposes tended to die out during the years just preceding the 1952 revival of interest. Some of the oldest programs have been in states bordering foreign regions (Los Angeles, San Diego), where opportunities exist to use a second language and/or where understanding among peoples needs to be fostered in all possible ways. All of these programs had "built-in" provisions for teacher education and for the development of materials.

Today's pressures need to be examined carefully. All evidence suggests caution before plunging into a foreign language program. Those responsible for making decisions—parents, administrators, teachers and children—need to consider all possible alternative courses of action that take into account priorities in values, purposes tailored to fit local conditions, and the resources available for carrying out these purposes.

Communication Skills and Understandings

There is nothing new about expressions of concern that all is not well with the teaching of the basic skills of communication. Rumblings of discontent and dissatisfaction are frequently recorded in the press and in minutes of school board meetings. Periodic eruptions have occurred for years, set off by controversies centered mainly around the teaching of reading and writing.

Within the past two generations problems of teaching these two R's have been intensified, magnified or obscured, depending upon one's point of view, by the impact of a new force. This force has made itself felt so powerfully over such a short period of time that it has come to be referred to as the "communications revolution."

The press in all of its variety provides evidence of this impact:

The New Yorker: A child observed playing in the park "waving a cap pistol and holding off four of his contemporaries. . . 'If you don't look out, I'll shoot you full of holes and give you quick relief.'"

Syracuse Herald American: Is Television Making a Dope Out of Father? Child care experts . . . warn that millions in the rock 'n' roll set are getting "a distorted picture" of how the man of the family should behave.

Kansas City Star: Head for the hills, men. The revenuers are a-coming again —armed with comic books . . . the government wants merchants to stop selling sugar to suspicious characters. A little comic book called "Don't Be a 'Sugar Daddy' to Moonshiners" tells the story.

Max Lerner, *America as a Civilization:* Most Americans associate the magazines, movies, radio and TV with the arts of living rather than with the molds of thinking, with entertainment and the uses of leisure rather than with attitudes and beliefs. . . . Those who control the media come to hold the strategic passes to many American minds. (p. 764-65)

Wilbur Schramm, *National Elementary Principal:* Over a long term, the mass media drip into us in a long, slow rhythm, filling in our picture of distant environment, giving us a concept of status in the society around us, providing models for our taste, giving us a ground for the figure of our decision processes. (36:13)

Changing Times (the Kiplinger Magazine): "The Dirt and Trash That Kids Are Reading." Children do read some trash, and parents do worry about it. This article surveys the problem objectively. . . .

The New Yorker: Nowadays, people like to talk about something they call the communications industry. . . . If this so-called industry exists, we think it reached its nadir last Thursday, when . . . a television crew in Little Rock "egged on" white students engaged in staging a walkout at the Central High School. We find it hard to identify with an industry that attempts to manufacture news for the sake of a good camera shot.

We are uneasy when we see the spontaneous play of children imitating some of the less desirable features of television fare; when we are alerted, on the one hand, to the possible effects of comic books on the values and tastes of our youth, and on the other, to the use of the same medium to disseminate propaganda for a specific purpose, no matter how worthy in intent. We are irritated, even as we are amused, at the possibility that popular programs may influence the perception of roles in society and reinforce our tendencies to stereotype. Uneasiness and irritation are terms too mild to describe our reactions to the irresponsible use of one of the most potent of the mass media.

These concerns are considerably different from those that have perennially engaged the attention of the critics of the teaching of reading and writing. The nature of the change may be clarified by a brief backward look at the language arts in the curriculum.

Getting historical perspective. In its earliest form two-thirds of the content of the curriculum in American schools was devoted to what was seen then as the basic language skills. Reading, writing (composition), spelling, penmanship and grammar were taught as tools, not primarily as presently useful, but for future use.

During the 1800's, speaking came to be recognized in the form of such subjects as oratory and elocution. Literature provided opportunity to put reading skills to use in ways other than purely practical. Thus, tentatively, art in limited form entered the curriculum.

In the course of the early twentieth century, "oral language" appeared on the report cards of elementary schools, and public speaking could be elected in high school. Debating, dramatic and reading clubs, along with school publications, gave evidence that language activities were being recognized as part of cocurricular or extracurricular activities. Compulsory attendance laws and the development of assembly-line teaching procedures to accommodate rapidly rising enrollments, coinciding with the scientific movement in education, added remedial reading and speech correction to curriculum content.

Meanwhile, outside the classroom, but affecting it little during this period, were appearing some developments whose influence would eventually make a profound impact on all aspects of language arts: the telephone, "talking machine," camera, "wireless," typewriter, radio, moving pictures, and as of just yesterday, television.

Today, the National Conference on Research in English and the Research Committee of the National Council of Teachers of English list, for 1958, research in the language arts under the following classifications: vocabulary, linguistics, mass communication, bilingualism, reading and corrective reading, writing, grammar and usage, spelling, handwriting, speaking and speech correction, and listening.

We might well add "semantics," and so find the number almost doubled over the traditional subjects previously listed. All have not yet made their way into the curriculum as subjects-to-be-taught on the elementary and secondary levels. At both levels, however, their influence is apparent in the form of both cause and effect of some of the current forces responsible for the recent very rapid changes. One force only will be considered.

Analyzing a current force. Changes in English in the last forty years have probably been as great as those from Chaucer's day to Shakespeare's. . . . Today no one questions the speed of culture change. We *see* our machine change. We *feel* ourselves change. So our language changes equally fast.[11]

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[11] E. Carpenter. "Effects of New Media on Current English Speech." In: A. Figurel, editor. *Reading in a Changing Society*, Conference Proceedings, International Reading Association, Vol. 4. New York: Scholastic Magazine, 1959. p. 16-17.

Except in fairy tales no change is as sudden as it appears to be. Many of the changes in language so evident today have been a long time in the making. Linguistic scientists and semanticists have been writing away and having their say in learned journals. Long before TV, the battle to win men's minds was joined as the press, the theater, and the silver-tongued orator sought to influence opinion on the hot issues of the day. So, while the grown-ups were being swayed in soap opera fashion by *Uncle Tom's Cabin,* the young—at least those in school—were being more subtly, but none-the-less thoroughly, exposed to the "social and moral ideas in the McGuffey readers." [12]

"Revolution" is perhaps not too strong a word to describe the changes brought about by advances in the technology of communication, changes that importantly affect the teaching of language in the classroom. The most obvious characteristics of this change are: (a) being able to reach very large audiences, (b) simultaneous communication, rather than over a period of time, and (c) by use of voice, facial expression, and gesture, rather than the printed word. It is obvious that the various media involved change as we move from (a) to (c). Printed material available easily and cheaply makes it possible to reach large audiences through comic books, large-circulation magazines, newspapers and paperbacks (annual sales 300 million).[13] While (b) is accomplished by radio and by the various forms of recording, only television and motion pictures can accomplish (c).

Identifying values and assumptions. Here we have an example of a problem of balance in content somewhat different from the one previously examined, that created by pressure to add the subject of foreign language not commonly found in the curriculum of the elementary school. We are looking now at a more complex problem, which involves pressures, both obvious and subtle, to expand, update, liberalize and revise one of the oldest content areas in the curriculum. Importantly involved, moreover, are problems of balance in all three aspects of curriculum content: subject matter, skills, and attitudes and values.

If we place the rather specific present concerns alongside the more general concern suggested in the brief historical look at the language arts curriculum, we may discern certain changes in the values and assumptions about language and its role as an area of curriculum content. For example:

1. Every individual has a right to literacy. Schools were established to provide the minimum equipment for literacy.

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[12] Richard D. Mosier. *Making the American Mind.* New York: Kings Crown Press, 1947. (Reprinted by permission of Columbia University Press.)

[13] William D. Boutwell. "Paperbacks, The Best Invention Since the Sandwich." *NEA Journal* 48: 55-56; October 1959.

2. Minimum literacy is not enough. Some degree of enrichment should be provided when need and aptitude exist.

3. In a democracy, more than the fittest should survive. Schools must provide help for those who cannot keep up in acquiring the basic language skills.

4. For the individual, language can be an expressive instrument as well as a practical tool.

5. Language can be a dangerous weapon as well as a useful tool. Its potency as a weapon increases with the development of mass audience media.

6. Acquiring of more potent instruments of communication must be accompanied by responsibility in using them.

7. Those on the receiving end of the mass media have some responsibility for affecting the quality of what they receive.

Decision making. A next step might be to consider the process of decision making that is suggested by the values thus identified. Several possible alternatives or combination of alternatives seem appropriate.

1. We may have to discard some content areas. There is evidence to support the questioning of grammar as it has been taught, both on the basis of its ineffectiveness in correcting usage, and of its inadequacy to describe American English. Gladwin, concerned with teaching children to think, points out further that "as a system of logic, school grammar appears singularly unscientific and artificial."[14] He goes on to suggest that the habits of thinking that the study of grammar encourages are the same as those leading to stereotyping and prejudice.

Both scientific studies and everyday experiences attest to the failure of grammar to do what it is supposed to do. Yet it has clung with stubborn persistence as an area of curriculum content.

2. We may have to add new content. Studies by linguistic scientists suggest that time spent on grammar might be more profitably devoted to study of language whose purpose is understanding and appreciation rather than correction. Appreciation of language has been traditionally "taught" through the use of literature, i.e., through the written forms of the language. However, there is presently available, and becoming available in increasing amounts, much material concerning American English in all the richness and variety of its local spoken form in different parts of the country.[15] Such material could do much to enrich the high school curriculum as well as to encourage more realistic teaching of usage.

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[14] Thomas Gladwin. "Better Ways of Teaching Children To Think." In: Alexander Frazier, editor. *Freeing Capacity To Learn.* Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a department of the National Education Association, 1960. p. 34.

[15] Harold B. Allen. "The Linguistic Atlases: Our New Resource." *English Journal* 45: 188-94; April 1956.

Appearing also are popularly written adult books, as well as children's books, that tell about the history of English as a language, give stories behind common words we use, and call attention to changes observable in our everyday use of language.

Another needed area of content suggested by the values listed concerns the building of responsibility both on the part of the producers and consumers of mass media. A psychiatrist calls attention to the passivity that television encourages, to its tendency to "satiate" rather than "stimulate" its audience.[16] Classrooms from kindergarten through senior high school are filled with avid consumers of the mass media in all of their forms, consumers who need to be helped to define their areas of responsibility and to find ways of discharging this responsibility.

3. We may have to reduce the amount of time spent on teaching the basic skills. This may mean, first, a rigorous examination of today's needs, and second, an open-minded appraisal of more efficient methods of teaching now being developed. Are we spending a disproportionate amount of time teaching letter writing, for example, in an age when it is, as Max Lerner suggests, "practically an extinct art"? Or in teaching two styles of handwriting in elementary school when every high school student could learn typewriting?

The use of teaching machines as a more efficient method of teaching certain skills is discussed elsewhere in this book. But, since "time to teach" is such an important consideration in any discussion of curriculum content, it is imperative that no possibility be overlooked which might release time for new work that needs doing. Could not the part of reading instruction, now so mechanically and systematically incorporated in teachers' manuals, basal readers and workbooks, be more efficiently programed on machines? Children might then proceed more nearly at their own rates, and the teacher's time might be released for the more important jobs in reading instruction. The same could be suggested for part of spelling instruction. If electronic laboratories are really helping teachers do a better job of teaching foreign languages, why could they not also be used for improving English usage?

Reading was once the most important means of acquiring information. Now, however, we have all the resources of the mass media to supplement reading. Both teaching and learning time might be saved by using more diversified sources of information, particularly in areas in which being up-to-date is crucial.

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[16] E. D. Glynn. "Television and the American Character: A Psychiatrist Looks at Television." In: William Y. Elliott, editor. *Television's Impact on American Culture*. East Lansing: Michigan State University Press, 1956. p. 175-82.

4. We may have to increase the amount of time devoted to content areas needing new emphases. If we could find ways to teach the basic skills more efficiently, we could devote more time to meeting new needs suggested by our values:

. . . For learning the complex skills and processes—problem solving, creativity, critical thinking, etc.—which are essential for "learning how to learn" and for dealing with the unknown that lies around every corner

. . . For understanding and perfecting speaking and listening skills which are increasingly more important as intaking and outgoing forms of communication

. . . For achieving a better balance between the expressive and enrichment values in writing and reading, and their use as practical tools

. . . For achieving increasing ability to discriminate and select from the offerings geared to popular taste outside the school; to offer within the school a wider range of quality *at both extremes* in order to sharpen powers of discrimination as well as to provide for a wide range of interests, abilities and tastes

. . . For achieving a certain level of sophistication and critical awareness of the many "hidden persuaders" in our culture.

Such a listing could be continued, but its purpose is to illustrate rather than to exhaust the possibilities.

We have attempted to describe a process of decision making in the language-communication area of curriculum content. A brief analysis of one force, the communications revolution, was followed by the identification of values and assumptions reflected in the curriculum changes that have taken place over a long period of time. The reality of present and future needs was then used to determine possibilities for deleting and adding content, as well as for reapportioning time allotments for specific purposes.

When the need for bringing about balance develops in a curriculum area as well established as the language-communication one, problems of balancing are different from those encountered in the case of introducing foreign languages in the elementary school. Pressures are more likely evident in the form of resistance to change. (Teachers, particularly high school English teachers, have been identified as being among the more conservative users of language.)

Many of the influences pointing up needs for change in this area, moreover, are subtle ones, observed by the sophisticated rather than the naïve. Perhaps even more important, they are influences not readily identified by the public, or by some teachers, with the area of responsibility of the language arts and English teachers, or even, perhaps, of the school. "Communications" as a body of curriculum content is well established in colleges, but has not moved down to any appreciable degree into the secondary and elementary levels.

The approach suggested in this case is not so much to urge caution as to become alert to the need for change in an area that has some very rigid spots. In talking about the influences of mass media, moreover, we are treating a problem that is relevant to classrooms everywhere and in all types of communities.

The Curriculum Design Problem

Logically organized bodies of subject matter may constitute a focal point for selecting curriculum content. In contrast, content may be selected in terms of the immediate interests of students. Historically, these two possibilities represent extreme positions in the field of curriculum development. Between these two extreme positions, sources for content may be identified with situations and problems that are personal and social in nature and that involve logically organized bodies of subject matter.

Selecting Content in Terms of Logically Developed Bodies of Subject Matter

When content is selected and organized around logically developed bodies of subject matter, the problem of choosing curriculum content centers upon the question, "What courses shall we teach?" As a result, the problem of balancing the curriculum becomes a matter of determining the courses to comprise the program of studies.

During the 1920's and 1930's some school systems began to experiment with the idea of developing fewer courses in the program of studies by relating content derived from some of the courses that formerly were taught as separate subjects. Shane notes in his survey of elementary school practices during the 1950's that the idea of relating courses "has continued to find wide acceptance." [17]

The idea of selecting content from different courses and relating that content in fused courses, correlated courses, broad fields, or a unified studies program represents efforts to effect a better balance of the curriculum. The fact remains, in each case, that the focal point for selecting and organizing the content of the curriculum is logically developed bodies of subject matter. While in these various attempts to relate content, activities may be developed around situations and problems of living, the actual selection of content is made in terms of the specific contributions of the logically organized fields of knowledge drawn upon to develop the fused, correlated and unified courses.

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[17] Harold G. Shane. "Elementary Schools Changed Only a Little During Fabulous Fifties." *The Nation's Schools* 65: 72; April 1960.

In defense of selecting and organizing content around subjects and logically developed bodies of knowledge, it may be stated: (a) teachers can specialize and know their subject matter field; (b) students will be assured of opportunities to deal with significant names and events in the history of our nation and of the world; and (c) community members expect that the school will develop its curriculum around the major disciplines.

On the other hand, such arguments as the following oppose a subject-centered type of curriculum structure: a subject-centered curriculum (a) does not allow for individual differences, interests and needs; (b) does not recognize the importance of processes as curriculum content; and (c) does not provide adequately for teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil planning.

Selecting and Organizing Curriculum Content Around the Immediate Interests and Concerns of Students

It is possible to make the immediate interests and concerns of students the focal point for selecting and organizing curriculum content. For example, instead of depending upon predetermined bodies of subject matter for curriculum content, the interests and concerns of students may be utilized as major sources for determining the curriculum. This approach to the determination of content is psychologically oriented.

Although this approach to selecting content rejects the idea of predetermined subject matter set-out-to-be-learned, it should not be thought of as a "planless" approach to curriculum development. Actually, it involves many different types of planning, such as attempting to know and utilize the real and healthy interests of students, and obtaining many and varied materials related to unit development. The teacher is involved in many different activities related to the teaching situation. He studies student records to understand better the interests and concerns of the learner; he plays his role in obtaining many and varied types of learning materials; he meets with each student and helps him to evaluate himself; he keeps records of group action for the purpose of helping a group understand better what is both occurring and developing in group affairs; he plans with students to effect a democratic environment; he talks with other teachers to understand better the behavior of each student; and he works with the classroom group to help establish criteria for the selection of units.

A major argument for this approach to the determination of content is that since students are dealing with problems and situations of real interest to them, they will work more intensely. The purposes of the study are *their* purposes.

Arguments in opposition to selecting content solely around the interests and concerns of youth, as expressed in the classroom, suggest that the apparent interests and concerns of students may not be their real interests and concerns; the major issues of society may be neglected; there is no guarantee that our cultural heritage will be explored; there will be serious omissions in the curriculum; and the community will oppose the idea of a curriculum that lacks a preplanned structure.

Selecting Content To Include Provisions for Dealing with Subject Matter, the Learner and Society

Various curriculum designs have been suggested to provide curriculum content related not only to logically organized bodies of subject matter, but also to the interests of the learner and to the needs of society. While these designs go by different names, such as social functions,[18] broad preplanned problem areas,[19] and persistent life situations,[20] they have certain common characteristics. They draw upon logically organized bodies of subject matter, as needed, to deal with real problems and situations of living. They organize learning situations around broad areas of living that are both psychologically and sociologically oriented. They provide a preplanned curriculum structure that assures significant areas for the development of learning situations but, at the same time, they provide much latitude for teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil planning in the classroom situation.

Points of view in favor of this approach to the selection of curriculum content include: (a) the curriculum is developed to provide not only for the interests and concerns of the learner, but as well for the attitudes, understandings and skills needed for effective living in our changing society; (b) the curriculum is up-to-date; and (c) the curriculum is lifelike, drawing upon all fields of subject matter to deal with personal and social concerns.

In opposition, it may be asked: Is there a guarantee that our cultural heritage will be explored in an adequate manner? Do we have teachers qualified to utilize this approach to curriculum development? Will the community accept a departure from a subject-centered basis for selecting content and organizing the curriculum?

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[18] I. Frederick and L. J. Farquear. "Areas of Human Activity." *Journal of Educational Research* 30: 672-79; May 1937.

[19] Harold Alberty. "A Sound Core Program." *NEA Journal* 45: 20; January 1956.

[20] Florence B. Stratemeyer, Hamden Forkner, Margaret McKim and A. Harry Passow. *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living.* Second edition. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1957. p. 115.

Whatever the answers may be, it is certain that we have gone beyond the idea of concentrating upon knowledge set-out-to-be-learned; that we have gone beyond the idea of depending upon the apparent interests of the learner as a sole criterion for the selection of content; and that we have gone beyond the idea of selecting content only in terms of social issues and social situations. Today, any consideration of content selection must include provisions for dealing with subject matter, the learner and society—all as one and each interacting to effect desired modifications of behavior.

Many Proposed Approaches to Curriculum Balance

In this consideration of content selection toward curriculum balance, we have acknowledged the need for making changes in curriculum during this time of major cultural changes. New knowledge and skills must be a part of the curriculum of the modern school. Scholars, professional educators and informed laymen are working together to give direction to these changes in our educational program.

As possibilities of imbalance in the curriculum increase, we must find new and improved ways to cope with the problem of imbalance. Our search for promising practices which move toward another level of balance must be greatly increased. For example, as we acquire new knowledge and skills, we must learn to relate or synthesize this material into our instructional program. We are only now beginning to work with the scholars from the various disciplines in listing the significant concepts to be learned from each field.

The California Central Committee on Social Studies

In California during the past five years, more than 200 social science scholars from the colleges and universities have worked with the State Central Committee on Social Studies in listing the major concepts in the fields of anthropology, history, philosophy, sociology, psychology, geography, political science and economics. After a list of approximately 25 concepts was completed from each of eight disciplines, a summary list of 18 concepts was compiled that cut across all eight fields.

This work has been carried out as a background for the adoption of more adequate textbooks for the social studies program for grades one through eight. This is only a first step in the direction of expanding the new knowledge and skills in one teaching field in the elementary grades. There is much work ahead in moving from concepts in the textbooks to teaching concepts to the individual student.

A National Curriculum Commission

Paul R. Hanna of Stanford University has suggested a need for having a National Curriculum Commission. He has further suggested the following membership for such a commission: (a) a team composed of 15 specialists in as many major subject matter fields; (b) ten specialists in curriculum theory and practice; and (c) five lay citizens. The major purpose of such a group would be "to establish a permanent, nonfederal National Curriculum Center or several such centers whose goal would be the continuous examination of the exploding frontiers of human thought and achievement and to identify generalizations that must be incorporated into the national curriculum design." [21]

A foundation grant was obtained to support the first conference of 12 distinguished American leaders at the Center for the Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences, Inc., in January 1960 to further the proposed plan for developing a National Curriculum Commission. This meeting was held at Stanford University and has since been noted in several education journals.

Educational leaders have been concerned that Dr. Hanna is proposing to write a design for a national curriculum rather than encouraging a National Curriculum Commission. Various proposals by this group have been made, but all have been focused toward encouraging local initiative and creativeness rather than toward a single design by "experts" which might lack the fluidity and adaptability necessary to meet the needs of a particular community.

Other Groups

The National Council for the Social Studies has appointed a special commission to assess the national social scene and indicate the importance and significance of the major changes in American life for the curriculum of the public schools. Howard Wilson, Dean of the School of Education, University of California at Los Angeles, has been asked to serve as chairman of this commission. The Council assumes that this commission will report to its membership at each of its annual conferences.

Likewise, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development has appointed commissions to study elementary curriculum and secondary curriculum.

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[21] Paul R. Hanna. "Design for a National Curriculum." *The Nation's Schools* 62: 43-45; September 1958.

Underlying this long-range program is a belief that we must seek many changes in our present curriculum for the public schools. We must also guard against the ever-present danger of imbalance as we strengthen any one phase of the total program.

Some Guidelines for Selecting Content

1. *Content cannot be kept in the deep-freeze.* Curriculum can no longer be seen as bodies of subject matter, accumulated from the past, organized, "frozen" into courses of study, to be thawed and consumed at each grade level.

2. *Learning is a lifetime process.* No one can learn during the 12 or 16 years of his "schooling" all that he will need to know, for, as Margaret Mead says:

> No one will live all his life in the world into which he was born; and no one will die in the world in which he worked in his maturity.[22]

She points out further, that "vertical transmission of the tried and true by the old, mature and experienced teacher to the young, immature, and inexperienced pupil" must give way in the future to "*lateral* transmission, to every sentient member of society, of what has just been discovered, invented, created, manufactured or marketed."[23] Such knowledge passes from the informed to the uninformed regardless of age.

Learning *how* to learn, therefore, becomes more important than the specific content. Moreover, when the emphasis is on the learning process, the particular subject matter being used becomes less important. For any one individual the organization and systematization of content go on throughout his lifetime.

3. *Both teachers and learners must select curriculum content.* Current headlines almost daily point up the fact that children and youth are more up-to-date and expert in certain fields than are their teachers. The principles upon which scope and sequence of subject matter were based are therefore no longer tenable. Inasmuch as adults set up the schools, they have initial responsibility for selection. Their concern should be to provide a wide assortment from which students may select. The process of educating, then, becomes one of preparing learners to become increasingly discriminating selectors.

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[22] Margaret Mead. "A Redefinition of Education." *NEA Journal* 48: 15-17; October 1959.

[23] *Ibid.*, p. 15.

4. *All concerned with content selection must be students of the current scene.* Noting symptoms of imbalance and analyzing pressures require not only seeing realistically *what is* but also seeing this in the perspective of *what has been*. The past is thus interwoven with the present. The "current" scene, moreover, must be broadly interpreted, for it is, at one point of decision making, the street we live on; at another point, the world we live in. It includes, also, the classroom in which we teach.

5. *Decision making concerning changes in content must include "built-in" provision for preparing teachers.* Teachers, whose area of expertness should be the learning process, can no longer be regarded as authoritative sources of information. Nor should they be made to feel self-consciously ignorant in this day when experts and up-to-date resources are available at the turn of a switch. It must be assumed that they, among others, will be learners throughout their teaching lifetime and provision should be made to facilitate this learning.

6. *All decision making is tentative.* In keeping with the reality of the changes that are creating imbalance, decisions concerning curriculum content might be seen as hypothesis testing. Such a view would encourage a spirit of experimentation, of commitment to practices only so long as they serve the ends we envision. Envisioning, of course, is the essential process. One of the worst effects of pressures is that they may force those on the front lines of attack to look backward for solutions.

Pressures need not, however, have this effect. They can invite new and untried ways of solving problems. The vision needed to do this requires awareness of values—transitory as well as enduring ones—and of their role in setting purposes; sensitivity to current forces and ability to analyze and interpret these in the perspective of history; and finally, knowledge as comprehensive and current as possible, about learning in all of its facets.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Problems in Organizing the School Program To Achieve Balance

PAUL M. MITCHUM • ARCHIE G. RICHARDSON

THIS CHAPTER deals with various organizational factors in the school related to balance in the curriculum. We believe that all persons responsible for developing and improving the school program should work and plan together in the process. Persons who work with school organization must consider whether the organization is balanced within itself, as a smooth-working team. They must also decide whether the organizational or administrative arrangements exemplify the professed goals of the school program.

Range and quality of learning are considerations that relate to any system or philosophy of education. A balance in philosophical outlook and in curriculum structure, however, may not result in an acceptable educational product. This is especially true if provisions for carrying out the philosophy and structure are not likewise balanced and consistent with regard to the goals desired. For example, a teacher may be expected to furnish a high degree of individualized attention for his pupils. If, however, his teaching load is six periods of classes daily, and if each of his classes has an average size of 35 pupils, this full expectation will likely not be achieved. Mechanics of scheduling which may be adequate for information-gathering types of instruction fall quite short of the demands of an instructional program that attempts to provide for pupil-initiative in research or for cooperative planning among teachers and within pupil groups. Moreover, if members of a school staff are charged with teaching boys and girls the principles and practices of a democratic society, their success will be enhanced if they themselves can practice these principles in their own staff work.

Balance in purpose then must be matched by balance in action. Too often in modern school life our efforts have been expended on *regaining* balance of a sort—a return to a kind of dignified posture—rather than on teaming up our goals with programs of action. Pressures on school personnel have almost made imbalance normal in many areas. Let us consider, as one example, the pressures for changes in the grouping of pupils.

Grouping Pupils for Instruction

One perplexing problem in education today is that of grouping pupils for the purposes of instruction. The concern of educators is not only the "how" of grouping, but also the "why." As thought is given to the problem, we must recognize the fact that in the process of instructing pupils for life in our society, two functions of education should be considered: (a) education's *integrating* function, and (b) its *differentiating* function.

For instance, when we teach for the realization of the goals of American education[1] we are attempting to integrate the learner into our American way of life. We are therefore carrying out education's integrating role. When we individualize instruction,[2] we are helping the person to develop his own particular potentialities so that there can be self-realization, and in turn so that the individual can make his own unique contribution to society. We are thus carrying out education's differentiating task.

It is through the integrating function that the school helps the individual acquire the knowledge, skills and appreciations that will enable him to live as a participating and contributing member of society. In meeting this responsibility the school is called upon to teach certain common understandings, ideals, attitudes, knowledge and skills. These factors make it possible for men to live together with mutual respect and to assume certain obligations for the common good.

The differentiating function is based upon the realization that individuals differ in many ways. The findings of scientific studies and the democratic value of respect for the individual suggest that the existence of differences in characteristics among persons is a normal condition. For the good of the person as well as of society, these differences should be encouraged and cherished to some degree. Provision for individual differences is a very important part of education's job. This means that the school has a responsibility for meeting the needs of individuals as well as meeting the expectations of society as a whole. In America's earliest schools, instruction was largely individualized. As more and more children came to school, teachers resorted to the use of more group instruction. Larger schools permitted arrangements other than simple grouping by grade levels or by subject areas. During the first quarter of the present century many schools established groups within a grade level or subject area, ranging from the slowest to the most rapid learners. Supposedly such a plan provided for instruction (both in speed and in content) to be tailored to the capabilities of the respective classes.

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[1] See: "Goals of American Education." *Educational Leadership* 17: 2-38, 47; October 1959.

[2] See: "Individualization of Instruction." *Educational Leadership* 17: 71-112; November 1959.

In the 'thirties and 'forties many school people became disillusioned with homogeneous grouping and considered such a plan to be undemocratic. In addition, such a plan seemed to fall far short of its goal of improving the quality of instruction. Now, with the exception of systems that never abandoned homogeneous grouping in the 'thirties and 'forties, many schools today are in various stages of resisting or yielding to the current pressure to group pupils by ability and achievement for the claimed purpose of increasing teaching and learning effectiveness. Much of this pressure has come from the growing movement in the past ten years toward identification of superior students and the provision of special programs for them. Proponents of this movement point out that providing equal opportunity for pupils does not necessarily mean identical programs or class organizations for all pupils. In other words, a fair opportunity for all would mean that superior students must be given every chance to develop their potential skills, knowledge and understandings as much as do average pupils, or any other group of pupils; hence, special classes should be set up so they can do just that.[3]

It is, of course, impossible to set up even one homogeneous group of pupils, for whatever purpose, without making the remainder of the student body more homogeneous because of the relatively lesser amount of the quality for which the special group is pulled out and identified, and for which programs are devised. Thus it is not quite accurate to say that in schools with special groups for slow and fast learners, the remaining pupils are not grouped, or that they are grouped heterogeneously. Even though moderate grouping of pupils may appear more useful than extensive and complete grouping (such as eight pupil sections in eight different levels of ability-achievement from slow to fast), it may be difficult to justify any grouping of pupils whose characteristics or needs are markedly different from the remainder without doing as much for any other group with markedly different characteristics and needs. Teachers in almost any comprehensive high school in a metropolitan area, for instance, would welcome a special program for pupils who are not quite low enough in native ability to be placed in special slow-learner groups, but who do not have the motivation or the developed skills to enable them to cope with the conventional curriculum.

What we are doing in many school systems, then, is trying to balance pressures for grouping with existing grouping practices. This does not necessarily achieve a grouping plan which is balanced *within* the school program, either philosophically or operationally. Here is the familiar balancing of tensions and forces. During the course of an extensive study of the needs of superior students, the Wilmington, Delaware, school staff discovered that several of the proposed measures for better meeting the needs of more capable pupils were in conflict with stated official philosophy of the school system. Needless to say, this philosophy had to be revised. Considerable difficulty was experienced by some staff members who through the years had come to accept and believe in the prior position of the school system that the over-all educational objectives could be brought about most effectively through heterogeneously grouped classes. Consider the status now of "rebel" principals and staff members who, in some school systems at least, managed to maintain unofficial grouping through the years in the face of an opposing official school-system policy.

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[3] A careful presentation of the general considerations of the problem may be found in Chapter II of: Robert F. DeHaan and Robert J. Havighurst. *Educating Gifted Children*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957.

Some of the confusion over techniques of organization for instruction has resulted from attempts of teachers to individualize instruction without distinguishing between individual differences and individual attention. When teachers face and study the problem of "individualizing instruction," they frequently run into a kind of mental block. They tend to confuse the two terms, *individual differences* and *individual attention*. Instead of studying the problem, "How can I provide for individual differences in my instructional program?" they find themselves dealing with the problem, "How can I give individual attention to so many children in my classroom?" Although these questions are related, they are distinctly different problems and should be dealt with as such. The first raises the question, "How can I best meet the needs and most wisely use the wide range of differences in abilities, interests and development represented by the pupils under my guidance?" The second raises the question, "How can I give enough time to each of the many children under my guidance?"

The problem of giving individual attention when 30, 40, 50 or more pupils are in a classroom is difficult. Something can be done under such circumstances, but it requires great strength, ingenuity, resourcefulness and patience on the part of the teacher. In addition, administrative and community support needs to be enlisted toward reducing class size.

There is much controversy about individual versus group instruction. It appears, nevertheless, that a practical approach to solution of the problem is to consider various bases for and ways of grouping children so that provision can be made for their individual differences. Schools today are using many types of grouping in their efforts to solve the problem.

Ability grouping. Some schools with large numbers of pupils in a grade have adopted the policy of grouping these pupils in terms of their general ability. They claim this makes for homogeneous grouping. Research points out that there is no such thing as absolutely homogeneous grouping and that a policy of fixed or rigid grouping will not necessarily promote the best interests of children.

Subgrouping within the class. Dividing the class into smaller groups for instructional purposes is now widely accepted. In smaller groups, instruction can be more closely adapted to the individual needs of the pupils, and the social advantages in the smaller groups seem to be considerable. The present day approach to grouping, however, suggests that it should be kept flexible. A pupil may work in one group for his reading experiences, and shift to another for experiences in another area of subject matter. Or, if the group is working on a problem or a unit of work, a child may work with a group on one phase of the problem and work with another group on another phase. Following are some different subgroupings which a teacher may employ:

1. Interest grouping: children who are interested in a particular topic may work together and share experiences.

2. Special needs grouping: children from other reading groups may be called together to a special group for learning a particular technique or skill.

3. Team grouping: two children may work together on a specific problem common to both.

4. Tutorial grouping: a subgroup is formed for direct instruction by a teacher, or perhaps by a more advanced child who plans with the teacher what he is to do with this group.

5. Research grouping: this device may be used when two or more children work together on a particular topic to prepare a report for the class.

6. Full class grouping: this may be employed for the purpose of certain common learnings, such as the use of the dictionary, choral reading, dramatization or music experiences.

7. Combined class grouping: two or more class groups meet together in a large room for instruction, either by lecture, film, television or other mass media techniques.[4]

Some elementary schools have resisted ability grouping of pupils by instituting a special arrangement. This consists of attempts to meet the needs of superior students by enrichment within heterogeneously

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[4] A survey of the problems in elementary schools regarding grouping will be found in: Harold G. Shane. "Grouping in the Elementary School." *Phi Delta Kappan* 51: 313-19; April 1960.

It is regrettable if school staffs resort to grouping practices through an uncritical yielding to pressures. Such adjustments should be made only after an examination of philosophical commitments, a consideration of available research findings, and a study of research which can be conducted. The ASCD Cooperative Action Program for Curriculum Improvement (CAPCI) is attempting to provide some suggestions and reorganized classes. The common practice of establishing small flexible groups within a class, as previously described, makes it easier for the elementary school to defend and retain conventional class organization. Further, in elementary schools in which there are only enough pupils to establish one class at each grade level, there may not be any practical way of engaging in extensive grouping of pupils, except within a class.

On the other hand, school people who advocate special programs for superior students at the secondary level are not content with the identification of such students as late as the junior high school. If there is to be a special program for superior students in the junior high school, then some plan of prior identification should include number, achievement, needs and other characteristics of the recruits for the program. Furthermore, it does not appear sufficient to depend upon a simple recommendation by the sixth grade teacher that certain pupils be placed in groups for superior performers in the seventh grade. For guidance purposes, and perhaps for their own protection, such pupils should be identified earlier, perhaps in the third grade, in order that the upper schools may plan and effect a sufficiently challenging and demanding program for them. Thus enters the increasingly familiar host of tests, inventories, checklists and sundry evaluative procedures into elementary school experiences. Quite generally, authors of current books and pamphlets, and consultants who are dealing with programs for gifted or superior students, include in their recommended procedures the early identification of such students.

Once these pupils are identified, is there any reason why elementary school teachers should not take this information into account as they plan for and work with superior pupils? If the elementary school is large enough to have more than one class at each grade level, would it not be advisable to group the superior students together for intensive and advanced instruction? How do principals and directors of elementary schools answer such questions in school systems in which the secondary schools are grouping with abandon? The answers are not made any easier when parents who have (or think they have) gifted children inquire about what special provision is being made in the elementary school for these potential intellectual leaders.

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sources through the development of certain working papers which the Association has made available to individual members and to study groups. Three annotated bibliographies in the CAPCI series, prepared in cooperation with the NEA Research Division, have also helped individuals and groups in enlarging their conceptual framework for making sound curriculum decisions. These bibliographies are: "Grouping," by Erla B. Scull and Nelson R. Scull; "Acceleration and Enrichment," by Miriam Goldberg and Abraham Tannenbaum; "Problem Solving," by Lavone A. Hanna and Richard E. Gross.

One pressure which has exerted considerable influence toward ability grouping in junior and senior high schools is the increased range of differences among secondary school pupils. This situation has been brought on by the high percentage of the adolescent population now attending our secondary schools. In the 'thirties, when many school systems were moving away from homogeneous grouping, approximately three-fourths of our young people of high school age were in school. Many of the pupils who dropped out along the way found school to be uninteresting, unprofitable and extremely difficult. Now, with nearly 90 percent of school age youth in high schools and with the high school diploma a desired goal for nearly everyone, some heterogeneous classes are simply more heterogeneous than their teachers can manage. Furthermore, the presence of such extensive ranges of performance in large classes, which are characteristic of so many of our secondary schools today, makes the task even more complex. Individualized instruction falls by the wayside in classes of 35 and 40, especially if the daily total pupil load of the teacher runs to 175 and more. Shall the teacher confronted with a reading level ranging from third grade to eleventh grade in the same class adjust instruction to the needs of the very slowest, the mid-range pupils, or the star performers? This is no academic question. Such a range does exist in many secondary schools. As the learning difficulty in various subject areas increases, it likewise becomes increasingly difficult for slow pupils to learn adequately just through being associated in class with bright pupils. Likewise, it becomes increasingly foolish to ask bright pupils to be content with a slower pace appropriate for the ability of their less capable classmates.

Thus run the arguments for increase of ability or performance grouping of pupils at the secondary school level. The effect of such thinking has been accelerated by the advent of sputniks and the accompanying demand for improved science teaching. Conant's study of the American high school takes a definite stand for grouping of pupils in the senior high schools (subject by subject, except for social studies and cocurricular activities), and gives substantial support to advocates of ability grouping.[5] Provisions of the National Defense Education Act (in which Title III deals with science, mathematics and modern languages) have stimulated secondary schools and some elementary schools to purchase new equipment (such as language laboratories for modern language classes) and to increase the offerings and requirements in these fields. A device in such situations is the establishment of groups of superior performers, e.g., classes for the gifted.

Another perplexing problem relating to grouping is the question of whether in special groups for superior students we should expect such students to move on an even front in all their subject areas. From the standpoint of scheduling, it is easier to assign these pupils to special groups in all areas through block scheduling, in which pupil groups remain identical in the various subject classes. In other words, once the special group of sudents is identified, the students stay together in their daily schedule and it is not necessary to regroup them. This is especially relevant in junior high schools because block scheduling is sometimes found in grades 7, 8 and 9. Even though it may mean more administrative work, school staffs will want to consider distinct grouping in the different subject classes for the superior students. If students are given a choice of whether or not they join superior-ability classes, as they are given in many schools, should they be permitted to become members of superior classes in some of their subjects and not in others? Does our concern about individual differences suggest a policy of allowing a student to pursue a chosen subject more deeply and extensively than he does others, or does a general concern about society's needs require us to urge this student to achieve superior performance in all lines of endeavor?

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[5] James B. Conant. *The American High School Today.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1959. p. 49.

Policy in regard to evaluation of student achievement is considerably complicated by special grouping for superior students. Should all the students in a superior group receive a "B" or better, or should the teacher apply some sort of curve or range of marks because he has discovered that the mere presence of a pupil in a superior-ability class, even after careful screening, does not guarantee unbounded motivation or outstanding performance? If it is generally believed among students planning to attend college that A's and B's are more easily gained in regular classes and if these students are ranked according to grade-point averages and such information furnished prospective colleges, how shall a counselor advise such students about whether or not they should be in superior-ability classes? Some high schools have experimented with assigning more points to a mark received in a superior-ability group. That is, a "B" might be counted 4 in regular classes and 5 in superior-ability classes. It is also fairly common for high school registrars to stamp or write in notes on students' cumulative records and transcripts to colleges indicating that certain marks were received in superior-ability groups.[6]

Even more serious is the question of whether a superior-ability group will have experiences and challenges which are distinctly different qualitatively from the other classes, or whether the assignments and activities are to be just "more of the same." If special groupings of superior-ability students are set up, the school staff must plan, through careful staff study and intensive in-service training of the special class teachers, a program which will draw out and develop more of the special potential of students in such a class than just the remembering and reciting potential. Individual initiative, personal creativity, analyzing ability, and sensitivity to value systems are some of the qualities which ought to be enhanced when pupils realize the benefits provided for them in special student groups.

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[6] Equally perplexing difficulties are encountered also in assigning marks to slow-learning classes. Here, if conventional marks are employed, the danger is that pupil and/or parent will judge the quality of performance to be higher than it really is. This is especially true if a more than passing mark is assigned to a pupil because he is doing all that he can. The problem is how to use marks to encourage the slow pupil without misleading him, or others, into thinking he is doing what he is not.

Another problem inherent in grouping practices is the extent to which the school should provide opportunities in its program for pupils of wide differences in ability to associate together. What are the implications of this question for the traditions of a democratic society? Is one justification for groups of superior-ability students the development of leaders? Then, are all other pupils to be developed in the remaining class groups? Is skill as a leader or a follower learned in separate camps? For that matter, are we certain that leaders in community and national life emerge exclusively from among high academic performers? Is it possible that leadership in itself is another distinct personal skill in which the quality of aspirants ranges all the way from low to high? Even if it is discovered that *most* potential leaders are qualified for membership in superior-ability classes, it has yet to be shown that skills of leadership are most effectively taught away from a situation in which all pupils have practice both in leading and in following. Can this need be met adequately in social studies classes, homerooms, lunchrooms, physical education, general music and assembly, in which all pupils are generally associated?

Regarding the benefits of special groupings, do we not need the intensive application of high intelligence to social problems, one of the strong areas of the social studies? Or does the need to have pupils of all ranges of ability associate together in social studies classes outweigh this consideration? In no issue raised in these comments on grouping is there a more critical question of balance than in this latter one. School staffs might well ponder this question as special groupings are contemplated, for it again focuses attention on balance between the school's integrative function and the school's differentiating task. Regardless of the kinds of grouping used in a school, the balance between these two functions should be achieved; they must be carried out together.

Need for Articulation

If the range and quality of instruction are to be improved, it would appear that the various persons in charge of teaching should be in communication with each other relative to what is to be taught and how learning is to be brought about. This should apply to teachers of the same grade level and also among teachers of all the grade levels, for we may assume that what one learns today may have some bearing on the nature and quality of learning tomorrow. Unless leaders in instruction view what is learned, whether it be information, skills or understanding, as being fortuitous and not subject to planning, some general structure, pattern or set of guidelines is in order. Balance in program may well depend upon balance in staff. The term *articulation* itself indicates that two or more different items, which apparently do not integrate of their own accord, are to be related through some kind of action, device or technique. We obviously believe that children find the secondary school world to be different from the elementary school world; hence, we have the need to articulate the unlike experiences. To what extent *are* these two parts of our educational system different worlds? Do different principles of learning apply? Do different curriculum structures apply? Do different administrative organizations seem to be required? What about different philosophies and systems of reporting to parents on pupil progress?

Deeply embedded in our professional habits of thinking is the separation in philosophy, practices and program that we designate as either elementary or secondary. This separation affects many choices, such as the teacher's preparation for elementary or secondary education, the planning of materials and buildings, or the leadership of separate directors for elementary or secondary education in large school systems. Emerging maturity of youngsters cannot alone justify the separation, nor can the admitted ability of boys and girls to adjust to the differences. The question is not whether pupils can adjust to different philosophies, systems of evaluation, or curriculum content, but is rather why they should have to do so. Is there any more reason for close-knit planning and coordination between grades 7 and 8 than between grades 6 and 7? How can we possibly improve the range and quality of learning unless we improve the balance in outlook, program and procedures of staff members from kindergarten through the twelfth grade?

In the first half of this century, with the advent of the junior high schools, hope was stirred that the "gap" between the elementary school and the secondary school would be "bridged." Some critics of junior high schools have suggested that now two gaps exist whereas before there was only one. Other critics have accused the junior high schools of becoming miniature senior high schools. It may be that too much was expected of the junior high school in the first place. However, considering the fact that the original staff members and leaders of junior high schools were untrained for the particular task they were asked to assume, they have done well. It is interesting to note that more school systems in the United States now have either a 6-3-3 plan or a 6-6 plan than have the traditional 8-4 plan of organization. Many systems now have block scheduling, core programs, exploratory experiences, and guidance, both group and individual. In many cases junior high schools have materially assisted pupils in making the change between elementary school learning activities and secondary school learning activities. It may be true that the good junior high schools have not reconciled all existing inconsistencies in a school system. Perhaps some of the basic differences between the elementary schools and the senior high schools might be resolved by more active discerning leadership on the part of the central administration. It is too much to expect this critical responsibility to be carried out by a third institution. Furthermore, some consideration must be given to what knowledge, skills, understanding and behavior boys and girls between the ages of 12 and 15 should acquire, no matter what particular school institution they may happen to be attending. Their physical, psychological and social needs will continue to appear, even though the institution may be grinding its gears. Society's expectations continue to hold also. In other words, the junior high school, in addition to helping pupils move from elementary into secondary education, must minister to the continuing and emerging educational and personal needs of its age group.

Senior high schools also have difficulties in improving the range and quality of learning. In the past several years community members have shown an increasing reluctance to be content with making their contribution to the school by attending athletic contests and PTA spring carnivals. Now many parents want to know about the soundness of the science instruction, or whether their son or daughter will be eligible for college entrance. Science and mathematics requirements have been increasing; parents have been duly warned that their sons and daughters will have to apply themselves diligently if they expect to earn entrance to college. Many principals have hurried to the newsstand to buy a current popular journal after being asked whether they had read the latest advice on how to man and manage a well-ordered high school. Today's increasing participation by lay citizens in school policy making is a notable development. Almost everyone except high school principals is advising the nation on what makes a good high school program. All this interest has, of course, its brighter side. Schools are receiving fellowships and equipment as well as advice. Some of the school program did need strengthening. All of it needed re-examination. Even though we have smarted under some of the negative criticism, we rejoice to rediscover how really important the American school system is to the American public. It is good to know how critically essential our parents and other citizens consider a good high school program to be for the general welfare. School people are not being ignored; they are needed! In the haste to raise requirements, increase offerings, and establish special groupings of students, high school leaders must help their staffs maintain a balance of outlook and effort regarding the total school program. Care should be taken that college-bound students shall continue to receive a strong foundation in general education, that is, in opportunities that we believe *all* students should have. Surely it would be unnecessary to deprive all college-bound students of such experiences as participation in band, orchestra, student council, industrial arts, and athletics.

Likewise, the great middle group of students, who cause no particular difficulty and for whom the conventional curriculum *seems* to work well, deserve our continued concern and planning. Because these students will adjust rather quietly and efficiently to either a good program or a less-than-desirable program, caution should be used so these pupils will not be neglected or taken for granted. Here again, we should not assume that just because such students are going about their daily assignments with dispatch and good humor, we can be excused from continuing study, evaluation and revision of the instructional program. Is the present program the very best that can be devised? Without doubt, our senior high schools, in order to be fair to college-bound students, must help to prepare them for the trials of a highly competitive scholastic world. Nonetheless, our high schools must also continue to provide an excellent general education for *all* students. This task calls for continuing and cooperative staff planning and for insightful, enlightened leadership.

High school graduates, moreover, are graduates of an entire school system. Consequently, staff members at all grade levels should share responsibility for planning and administering a coherent, unified program of studies. Only such an approach can produce the kind of high school that is worthy of the community and the nation. This involves cooperative staff planning, from kindergarten through twelfth grade, on philosophy, content, scope and sequence. Our concern must be not just for what students are learning, but for what they are becoming.

Guidance and the Curriculum

Our concern, of course, should be expressed both through the program of instruction and through the techniques and processes of assisting boys and girls to make the most effective uses of this program for themselves.

The need for guidance grows out of the existence of individual differences. Each child presents a unique pattern of characteristics which makes assistance and guidance necessary if he is to develop to his optimum. Adequate guidance, therefore, must consist of a great deal more than helping an individual make a vocational choice. Guidance consists of all those things adults do consciously to assist a child or young person to live fully and effectively, according to his own ability and aspirations. It includes helping an individual to discover his interests, abilities, aptitudes and possibilities, as well as stimulating and encouraging him to make full use of his potentialities.

Guidance may take an almost endless variety of forms, such as studying some aspect of the child's life in order to understand him better; devising learning situations which will give him needed experience; conferring with his parents to discover some of his needs; listening sympathetically when he wants to make his feelings and wishes known; and giving him consistent psychological support which encourages wiser self-direction. Guidance involves both helping a child to adjust to a required pattern of living, and helping a child to make his own decisions so that he may make his unique contribution to society. Some people confuse counseling with guidance, but guidance and counseling are not synonymous. Guidance, the larger term, includes counseling as one of its elements. Its other elements are diagnosis, information, orientation, placement and follow up.

In order to assure each child proper and effective guidance, all parents, teachers, supervisors, visiting teachers, counselors and other persons should share at times in helping the child to discover himself and to make best use of his potentialities. Persons interested in guiding children raise many questions regarding ways of understanding them. Two questions are frequently raised: (a) what do we need to know about a particular child in order to help him? and (b) how do we secure this information?

What one needs to know about a child is anything and everything that will help the adult understand the kind of person the child is, and what causes him to behave as he does. This information can be obtained best by studying him in a variety of situations and by using a number of different techniques.

The following case studies illustrate some ways in which school groups and individual teachers are attempting to discover pupil needs so that educational programs may be developed to meet these needs. The first illustration represents the approach of a total school group to the understanding of pupil needs in general. The second represents a teacher's attempts to understand a particular individual by short-term study. The third illustration represents a teacher studying an individual for a much longer period of time.

The Case of School A

A group in School A, consisting of pupils, parents and teachers, set out to study the pupils in the school. Various members of the group interviewed pupils and their parents, both individually and in groups. Members of the group observed and recorded behavior. They constructed and administered questionnaires to pupils and parents. They tested pupils with teacher-made as well as standardized tests to determine weaknesses and strengths in abilities and skills in subject matter areas. Each pupil was requested to fill out personal data cards which gave certain information about himself. Pupils were requested to have examinations by their family or school physician and dentist.

Some of the general needs of pupils which were discovered through the study were for:

Improved skills and abilities in subject matter areas
Better balanced diets
More knowledge of how to use leisure time wisely
Correction of physical and dental defects
More opportunities to earn money
More information on vocational requirements and opportunities.

The school's instructional program was later developed and improved around these discovered needs.

The Case of Abigail Witherspoon [7]

In School C the teachers became interested in developing techniques of studying and understanding children. Each teacher agreed to study at least one child in his classroom as thoroughly as possible. One teacher chose to study Abigail Witherspoon. The teacher studied every available record that he thought would help him to understand Abigail better. He consulted her record on intelligence and achievement tests, interviewed her former teachers, talked with her mother, her older brothers, and her uncle. In addition he observed Abigail carefully both at work and play. The teacher summarized a part of this study in the following report:

1. Name: Abigail Witherspoon
   Sex: Female
   Age: 17 years, 6 months
   Date of Birth: February 5, 1942
   Grade: Seventh.
2. Family of Abigail:

Mother and five brothers, two of whom have finished high school and three of whom are now in school. Abigail is the third child and the only girl. Father died when she was seven years old, leaving the mother and six small children.

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[7] All names used in these cases are fictitious.

After the father's death, the mother became very depressed and had constant fears of what would become of the poor, fatherless children. Some of these anxieties are noticeable in several of the children.

The family owns and operates a small farm on which there is a very comfortable, but not expensively furnished dwelling. There is little of cultural value in the home—just a daily paper, a farm magazine and a radio. The family owns a car which is driven only to church, to get farm supplies, and occasionally to PTA meetings.

The mother is deeply religious and she and her family regularly attend Sunday School and church services. She takes no active part in any type of social group, nor does she ever go to a movie or any form of entertainment, except senior class plays, and occasionally exercises at school. The two older boys have some social activity, but seem to be shy, timid and social misfits. Abigail is socially maladjusted to a much greater extent. She, like the mother, never has any social opportunity.

3. Health of the Pupil:

In spite of the fact that the mother and most teachers who have had Abigail in school think she is subnormal, this pupil has never had a thorough physical or mental examination. Her mother fears feeble-mindedness.

She is well developed, but has become somewhat big, clumsy and awkward in the past several years. Apparently she is never sick. She detests any form of physical activity to the extent that she sometimes rebels and becomes irritable. As a proof of good health, she has had perfect attendance most of her ten years in school.

4. Why the Study of Abigail:

To determine whether or not she is subnormal or mentally retarded

To find ways to assist pupil to find herself

To aid other teachers in locating and studying other cases of a similar nature.

5. Methods of Securing Information:

Past records—achievement tests and behavior tests

Interview with past and present teachers

Visits with mother and older brothers

A talk with a very close relative (mother's only brother) to whom the family goes for help and opinion

Observation of pupil at work and play.

6. Difficulties in Securing Information:

Lack of intelligent cooperation on the part of the family

Difficulty in finding anyone who had pupil's real interest at heart except an uncle, who thought the mother was mostly to blame for poor handling because she lacked training in child psychology.

7. Some Needs Discovered:

Security at home and at school

Affection and understanding
A feeling of belonging
Experiences that are rich, varied and satisfying.

The Case of Sam

It was at the end of his first year in her class that the teacher became particularly interested in studying Sam. She began to sense certain changes taking place in him at this time and wanted to understand these changes better. She therefore decided to study him intensively. This she did by keeping numerous records on him for a period of three years. Included in this study of Sam were anecdotes about him, test findings, his peer relationships, family relationships, written work, behavior, health records, academic achievement, changing rates of growth, fluctuating rate of output of energy, role in the class group, relationship to his teachers, dealings with persons of the opposite sex, image of himself, abilities in various directions, experience background, aspirations, attitudes and values, and finally the constellation of developmental tasks he faced.

In making this complete study of Sam, the teacher (a) related facts about the individual child to scientific generalizations about human development and behavior; (b) formulated hypotheses about the boy's behavior; and (c) verified these hypotheses through observation, teaching, interviewing and other methods of obtaining evidence. On the basis of the insight thus gained, the teacher was able to work effectively with the boy in several trying situations and to help him make progress toward the mastery of his early adolescent developmental tasks.

In the preceding three studies it may be noted that teachers recorded what they observed and what they already knew about certain children. They supplemented this information with what they knew about children in general. In addition, they obtained other information about these children which helped them to determine

1. What age the child was developmentally
2. What his interests, aptitudes and potentialities were
3. How he compared with other children in his group
4. How his home, family and community life affected him
5. What the implications of his behavior were
6. What he had been through, i.e., his previous experience
7. What his basic needs were.

These case studies merely illustrate some ways in which school groups and individual teachers have attempted to understand children so that they might properly carry out their important responsibility of guiding them. All a teacher discovers about a child should be utilized in helping the child to learn and to develop.

In Chapter I of the book, *Helping Teachers Understand Children*, the following principles are set forth:

1. Teachers who understand children *think of their behavior as being caused.*
2. Teachers who understand children *accept all children emotionally.*
3. Teachers who understand children invariably recognize that *each one is unique.*
4. Understanding teachers *know and understand the developmental tasks of the growing child.*
5. Understanding teachers *know the more important scientific facts which describe and explain the forces which regulate human growth, development, motivation, learning, and behavior.*
6. Understanding teachers *habitually use scientific methods in making judgments* about any particular boy or girl.[*]

Obviously, not all guidance services needed by children and youth can be supplied by classroom teachers alone. Specialized guidance personnel such as counselors, psychologists and psychiatrists perform tasks which classroom teachers are not trained or equipped to do. From the standpoint of a balanced school program, guidance personnel ought to have a central role in the consideration of school philosophy, curriculum structure, and teaching procedures. After all, certain discrepancies exist between the program which the school provides and the child's identification of the school's program as his own. Such discrepancies contribute much of the day-to-day work load of a guidance specialist's services. It may well be that too much of the counselor's time is spent getting a pupil to adjust to the school program; he should join other school personnel in planning and administering a school program better suited to individual needs. Guidance personnel and instructional personnel not only need to work together regarding curriculum structure and teaching methods, but they also need to review the function of homerooms, student councils, and activity periods which were begun before most schools had any specialized guidance personnel.

The role of guidance, then, whether administered by classroom teacher or specialist, is to help the individual move through the difficult process of growth by improving both the range and the quality of learning. The school's guidance program should not only help the pupil make the best use of the school's offerings and activities, but should also help the school plan and administer its program to best meet the needs of its pupils.

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[*] American Council on Education. *Helping Teachers Understand Children.* Washington, D.C.: the Council, 1945. p. 8-11.

Administrative Arrangements, Standards and Pupil Achievement

One item about which many members of the general public are quite articulate is the need of pupils for high academic achievement. School personnel, of course, concur in a desire for high achievement on the part of pupils. However, some of the staff more than others may want to make a closer examination of the relationships between what the pupil is asked to achieve, on the one hand, and his abilities, ambitions and personal purposes, on the other. There is a strange aspect of the current interest in pupil achievement. This is the belief held by some that if a given school shows high achievement by most of its pupils, there must be inevitably a considerable number of pupils who are failing to achieve a satisfactory level. The mere presence of these "failing" pupils is supposed to indicate, in some way, high achievement standards for the school. One of the authors was interested in a recent reaction by an editorial writer. This person, when he was told that the local schools do not have 100 percent promotion but instead have 4 percent failures at the secondary level,[9] said, "But that's not high enough!"

It gives one a strange feeling to ponder the possibility that the school's effectiveness may be measured by the number of pupils it fails to teach successfully. Critics, of course, surely do not mean this. What concerns such persons is a fear that a low number of failures indicates that standards are so low that almost anyone can get by with a little effort. This fear does not seem to be lessened very much by evidence. Such evidence was available, in the local instance just cited, that many pupils are competing successfully for college scholarships and are giving a good account of themselves when their college marks are compiled later. Part of our difficulty is caused by confused thinking about whether *all* pupils should be expected to achieve as well as the college-bound students. In this same local situation 40 percent of public high school graduates go on to college. Many of the other pupils, of course, enroll in courses designed for college preparation. Still others avoid such courses because their previous low academic success has discouraged them. Now, shall these young people, many of whom are wise and justified in not pursuing college preparatory courses, be held to the same standards of attainment that can be reached by the college bound? Our society, through compulsory attendance laws, has clearly indicated its intent that all boys and girls of school age shall share in our educational program. It has also indicated through legislation its belief that some pupils require special programs, and special funds have been appropriated in many states to make these programs possible.[10] If a particular community has among its children and youth a wide range of ability (which, of course, can be demonstrated through intelligence tests), cannot this community likewise expect a considerable range of performance in school work? Will not this range in performance be increased still more to the extent that all pupils follow, in general, the same subject content in their studies?

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[9] Two and four-tenths percent in elementary schools. Source: Des Moines Public Schools, Department of Guidance, Research, and Testing. *Comments on Reports of Failures, Fall Semester 1958-59*. Des Moines: the Schools, 1959. p. 1.

The challenge, however, is more than just drawing a distinction between those pupils who can and should follow a given course and those who should not. Even among youngsters who are capable of preparing for college, there is pressure to concentrate on those courses directly related to college preparation to the neglect of other aspects of the school program. In the high school mentioned in the preceding paragraph the tendency for college-bound students to concentrate on academic subjects has caused the principal to wonder whether or not industrial arts classrooms will be needed in the new building that is being planned. Fine arts and home economics teachers are now being given additional study hall assignments in order to provide these staff members with a full work load. If the staff and patrons of this high school want experiences in fine arts and practical arts to continue as a significant part of general education for the college bound, these courses may have to be taken off the elective list and put on the required list. A general increase in the number of high school course requirements may mean either the ultimate disappearance of the elective system [11] or an increase in the total number of units required for graduation.

In many high schools there is already an increase in graduation requirements. One recourse for the student is to carry a standard load, if he can, of five full-time courses instead of the customary four. In the comprehensive high school, however, there will be many pupils, not intending to go to college, whose abilities will not permit them (unless standards are more flexible in the other four classes) to carry five "solids" successfully. These young people, then, must either be given a shorter school day or be scheduled for study hall periods while the college bound are pursuing their additional studies.[12]

[10] Consider provisions for vocational education, programs for the mentally retarded, and, more recently, programs for the gifted.

[11] Or, the few electives remaining will be confined to "assist" courses, such as personal typewriting. There would still presumably be a choice among patterns of courses, that is, college preparatory, vocational, business education, etc.

[12] If the non-college bound pupils can be scheduled to pursue their classes in longer periods than the college bound, the necessity for numerous large study halls might be avoided. Another possibility would be elective classes for the non-college bound to fill out their schedules.

Furthermore, in high schools in which classroom utilization and staff load have reached the maximum, both increased staff and a longer school day may have to be considered in order to work in additional courses. In an increasing number of large school systems students who have difficulty scheduling all the required and desired courses are resorting to original credit courses in summer school. In Upper Darby, Pennsylvania, for example, a college-bound student who wants to take band or orchestra, and to play in either organization for the three years of senior high school, meets his United States history requirement in summer school. Other students planning to attend college take a personal typewriting course in summer school to help them in their theme writing during the academic year and in college. In New Trier Township High School in Illinois more than half the incoming freshman class members take summer school courses prior to their first academic year. Certain educational inadequacies, as well as needs for personal counseling, can be met for new students in such a procedure. Staffs which want to provide driver training for students who already have heavy demands on their time can set up such training in summer school courses. Then the schools can schedule driver training in the academic year for students whose time permits them to include it without infringing upon their academic classes. Again, students who want to take an active role in athletics, student council, class plays, and other cocurricular activities may find in summer school an opportunity to balance out their program.

A similar situation arises with pupils of just about average ability but with extraordinary motivation and application. Should these youngsters be permitted to take less than an expected college preparatory load in the academic year, and then to take in three summer school sessions certain subjects on which they want to concentrate a great deal of effort? This is a different dimension of balance, and one which might be considered by high school staffs as they ponder means of improving the range and quality of learning for diligent students who require more time to do an excellent job. Summer schools are definitely on the increase and their programs are expanding from the traditional make-up courses to include both enrichment programs and original credit courses. Usually six weeks in length, with periods running two hours or more daily, summer schools enable many school systems to plan and carry out a more balanced program for their students. Summer school is also an excellent opportunity for developing new courses, new groupings of students, and new materials and techniques. The findings of such experiences can be fed back into the academic year as changes in the regular program of studies are contemplated. As these things happen, of course, it will mean that summer school will become an integral part of the school year.

Departures from Conventional Programs

The nature of the school schedule itself is a critical factor in balance, whether it is looked upon from the standpoint of daily time allotments, number of periods classes meet per week, or length of courses in days, weeks and semesters. We now add to these dimensions the factor of individual differences of pupils, although we know how difficult it is to provide for these variations. It is easy to understand, then, if not to justify, the consequent distribution of pupils in a rather inflexible set of times, places, persons and events, instead of arranging the times, places, persons and events better to meet the needs and capacities of the pupils. One of the values set forth in Chapter Three is the freedom of every individual to develop to his optimum potential. Can this possibly be done in the type of school schedule which is apparently organized on the basis of equal amounts of time for everything and everybody? Through counseling and through variations in grouping and course content, a school staff can, it is true, introduce youngsters more intelligently to the school's offerings. To the extent, however, that any staff member, especially the principal, exclaims when a curriculum change is proposed, "That would simply not work in our kind of schedule," he is testifying to the near strangle hold which the conventional school schedule has on the thinking and habits of school personnel.

The conventional concepts of grade level, school year, and class organization are likely to be just as binding on our outlook as are our habits regarding time schedules and allotments. Again, if we subscribe to the desirability of encouraging every individual to develop to his optimum potential, must we not consider the possibility that not all youngsters will need the same number of school months per year or the same number of school years for this growth? Or, are we to conclude that developing optimum potential refers to optimum in terms of what our conventional school organization permits?

The Primary Unit

In an attempt to break away from the traditional organization in elementary schools, several school systems have experimented with the primary unit plan of school program. This plan is demanding increasing interest and attention. Many variations of the plan exist but in general they have the same basic characteristics, namely: (a) a program providing for continuous growth and learning for each child; (b) flexible grouping providing for attention to individual needs, abilities and interests; (c) the removal or minimizing of grade lines; and (d) promotion based on physical development, social development, and emotional maturity as well as achievement.

The subject matter content of the three year program in the primary unit offers the child, in an effective way, the same opportunity to develop in academic skills and knowledge as is offered by the primary graded classes. Primary units are taught generally by one teacher over a three year period. When a teacher remains with the same group for several years, there seems to be a definite advantage. The teacher in such a situation can learn to know each pupil well and is able to increase the guidance and help he can give. If in the primary unit, however, the teacher is changed each year, the administrative organization of the unit may not differ much from the conventional type of plan.

The introduction of the primary unit requires careful study and planning. There should be staff study and understanding of (a) the philosophy and purpose of such an organization; (b) the growth and learning patterns of each child; (c) the academic program of the first three years and the placement of such skills in the primary unit; and (d) the bases and techniques of effective grouping. Parents, too, must understand the organization and purpose of the program if it is to be successful.

A review of the literature on this innovation reveals the following:

Through the use of the primary unit plan attempts are being made to eliminate grade level lines and to permit young children to progress at their own rates of growth. The program is continuous and there are no promotions or failures for three years. There may be some shifting of children as their competencies and capacities warrant. Although a child may change rooms, the new teacher will carry on at the stage of achievement and growth which the child achieved with the previous teacher. The teacher is not designated as a teacher of a particular grade but as a teacher in the elementary school. The children in a room are grouped according to levels of ability, and each teacher teaches as many levels as the needs of the children require. Basically, the plan represents a softening of the straight retention practice; it is based upon evidence that all children do not learn at the same rate; it recognizes the fact that all aspects of a child's growth are important.

Success of the primary unit plan depends upon factors such as:

Teachers must possess a thorough knowledge of the differences among children.

Teachers must be willing to depart from the customarily accepted ways of teaching.

Teachers must be willing to cooperate and work closely with one another in planning and evaluating.

The parents of children involved should devote sufficient time studying with the help of teachers in order to understand the advantages of the plan.

Such a plan cannot succeed unless teachers and parents understand and accept the philosophy underlying the plan.[13]

The Little School

The "little school" plan, or "the school within a school," is another device for bringing about a better relationship between time, place, personnel and events on the one hand, and the needs and abilities of the pupils on the other. Of course, if the school is no larger than a little school to start with, then some of the advantages of the small school can be put into operation without reorganization. The large school, however, not only provides enough pupils for two or more little schools to be organized, but also permits these little schools to be organized on a variety of bases or purposes, while a total school that is a small unit in itself can hardly do as much. The little school may be organized as a grade level; in equal portions of three or more grade levels, in which plan pupils proceed through their school program identified with the same little school at all grade levels; or on a curriculum choice, such as all pupils taking modern languages or a particular modern language; or any other basis for grouping which arranges the pupils in plans that include less than the total pupils in a school building unit.

In the preliminary plans for Meredith Junior High School, Des Moines, Iowa, the little school idea is projected as follows:

> Essentially, it is proposed that the new Meredith Junior High School be designed as three separate schools of 250 capacity each. Each little school will

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[13] For further reading on the primary unit see:

John I. Goodlad and Robert H. Anderson. *The Nongraded Elementary School.* New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1959.

Robert H. Anderson. "Ungraded Primary Classes: An Administrative Contribution to Mental Health." *Understanding the Child* 24: 66-72; June 1955.

Robert H. Anderson. "The Ungraded Primary School as a Contribution to Improved School Practices." In: Vincent J. Glennon, editor. *Frontiers of Elementary Education II.* Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University Press, 1955. p. 28-29.

Association for Childhood Education International. *Grouping, Problems and Satisfactions.* Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1954. (Three articles relate to the present topic: "Grouping in the Whole School," p. 12-13; "Schools Can Change Grouping Practices," p. 14-18; and "To Promote or Not to Promote," p. 36-39.

Kent C. Austin. "The Ungraded Primary School." *Childhood Education* 33: 260-63; February 1957. (This is a description of the plan in Park Forest School System, Illinois.)

Bernice Baxter, Gertrude Lewis and Gertrude Cross. *The Role of Elementary Education.* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1952. p. 243-89.

contain, in this proposal, grades seven, eight, and nine. The students will spend three years in this sub-group of the larger school. Within this unit, they will receive most of their general education including science, mathematics, social studies and English. When numbers, grouping, or electives result in a small class that cannot be justified in each little school, the class will be drawn from more than one little school. As far as practicable, the basic educational program will revolve around this little school concept.

The teachers of the little school will, it is hoped, operate as a team and, if possible, will have a common planning period. It should be possible within the little school to have a good deal of flexibility of scheduling in order to accomplish the purposes of the school system and the team of teachers. The teachers assume broader responsibilities than the usual academic program implies, in that they are responsible for developing each student as far as he is able and with full recognition of his abilities and limitations, carrying beyond the individual teacher's subject area.

The team of teachers analyzes each student, bringing to bear the judgment based on the various aspects of the program with which the student is involved. The program can be adjusted for each student so that his weaknesses, say in English, are attacked by social studies, science and mathematics teachers as well. The strengths of each student can be capitalized upon by providing for individual work often far in advance of the work of his class group. The guidance aspect of the little school can be strengthened by gaining greater specificity within a smaller group.[14]

Lower Merion Township schools in Pennsylvania employ the little school plan in their new junior high schools and have constructed their new school buildings around this concept. Certain features of a school plant, of course, such as auditorium, cafeteria and gymnasium, are usually shared by all the little schools. In new construction, little school organizations may be provided for in sections of the same building, or they may be provided with small, separate campus type units, as in Lower Merion.[15]

Administratively, the teachers of the little school may elect a chairman or the principal of the large unit may designate a staff member as leader of the particular little school. The staff of each large school will have to determine, of course, just how much autonomy is going to be encouraged in the little schools. In practice, the little schools can save the school unit offices a great deal of time and effort when they, the little school staffs, plan and administer their own schedules and their guidance set up. Presumably all the little schools would have the same general school day, although the arrangements within the school day could vary with each little school.[16] A great deal of the success of the little school would depend upon the desired provision for each little school staff to have a scheduled time for group planning.

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[14] N. L. Engelhardt, N. L. Engelhardt, Jr., S. Leggett and F. G. Cornell. *Preliminary Program of Educational Requirements, Meredith Junior High School.* Des Moines, Iowa: the Schools, January 1960. p. 29-30.

[15] In the new White Plains, New York, high school there will be two identical buildings for academic classes. In each there will be approximately 500 students in grades 10, 11 and 12 who will have classes in English, mathematics, social studies and languages. They will also have study hall and lunch provisions in their unit. In addition there will be other units housing sciences, fine arts, physical education and music. All buildings will be connected with enclosed passageways.

Selection of the little school staff members is, of course, an important matter, as is the selection of a chairman or leader. Needless to say, careful and adequate in-service education of the staff should precede and accompany the establishment of a little school plan. In this respect, the understanding and willingness of staff members are key points in the whole program. Moreover, careful and thorough provisions for adequate communication among the several little school staffs on such matters as purposes and patterns of action must be made. Indeed, the desired relationship between each little school and the school unit at large should be clearly defined at the outset; otherwise, little schools may become more divisive than unifying and creative in their behavior.[17]

Block Scheduling

Secondary schools that find it unwise or impractical to establish little schools can nonetheless break away from traditional patterns of organization. Through the block schedule, teachers of basic subject areas, instead of being assigned random groups of pupils, can be grouped as teacher teams for pupils of the same grade level enrolled in those particular subject areas. Especially at the junior high school level, block scheduling makes for a compact and rather easily managed grouping of classes. Block scheduling may be structured around a variety of purposes. One purpose might be to make the whole scheduling process as simple and expeditious as possible; this might be thought of as an administrative convenience. Another purpose might be to get all pupils who happen to be taking modern languages, for example, to work together in required classes. Still another purpose might be to schedule teachers who have common interests and concerns with a given 120 or 150 pupils. A fourth purpose could be to group certain pupils for more effective guidance and counseling.

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[16] Actually, about two-thirds of the school day can be devoted to the work carried on by the little school. The remainder has to be reserved for classes such as physical education, music and art, which are usually in other sections of the school plant and generally have to be scheduled at a set time each day.

[17] See also:

American Association of School Administrators. *The High School in a Changing World.* Thirty-Sixth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: the Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1958. p. 197, 200-201.

School Management. "A Portfolio of Little School Plans." *School Management* 4: 66-75; February 1960.

Paul M. Mitchum. *High School Principal and Staff Plan for Program Improvement.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958. p. 74-75.

At the senior high school level, because of the wide variety of offerings, it is not quite as easy to work out block schedules; however, with planning it can be carried out for any identifiable group or groups of pupils enrolled in the same subject areas. In the following table, such a plan is set forth for approximately 120 tenth grade pupils in four groups, to which are assigned one English teacher, one biology teacher, one geometry teacher, and one world history teacher.

Periods	*Group A*	*Group B*	*Group C*	*Group D*
1	English	World history	Biology	Geometry
2	World history	English	Geometry	Biology
3	Biology	Geometry	World history	English
4	Geometry	Biology	English	World history
5	Other assignments			
6	Other assignments			

The teacher assignments in such a schedule would appear as follows:

Periods	*English teacher*	*World history teacher*	*Biology teacher*	*Geometry teacher*
1	Group A	Group B	Group C	Group D
2	Group B	Group A	Group D	Group C
3	Group D	Group C	Group A	Group B
4	Group C	Group D	Group B	Group A
5	Other assignments			
6	Planning period			

In this plan it would be helpful, of course, if the teachers of the four basic subject areas could all be assigned a daily conference period in which they could plan together. If a daily period cannot be arranged, one or two periods per week would seem to be a minimum if the full advantages of team planning are to be realized. Mutual consultation, it should be pointed out, can range from casual conversations on pupil behavior problems to cooperative planning of course content built around the needs and concerns of the 120 particular pupils in the group at large. Here, as in the little school plan, considerable flexibility in both time and groups is possible. Pupil groups may be set up heterogeneously or they may be organized on any of several bases of homogeneity. Pupils can be shifted from one group to another; they cannot change teachers except by moving from the block to another portion of the school unit's schedule.

Cooperative planning of the teachers, however, would make possible such activities as field trips, or any other extension of time, to be administered with a minimum of inconvenience. Moreover, the doubling up of groups, or indeed gathering all 120 pupils together for certain learning situations, can be accomplished without disturbing the remainder of the school. The only limitations are the pupils' class assignments outside the block schedule, similar assignments of the teachers, and the general boundaries of the school day. Within the portion of the school day set aside for the block schedule, many arrangements and special provisions are possible. Opportunities for working with parents and for providing group guidance in the block are limited only by the imagination and ingenuity of members of the teaching team.[18]

Teachers who are certified in more than one subject area in the block can, by taking two subject assignments with the same pupils, reduce the total number of pupils with whom they deal in classes. In the sophomore block of pupils described, teachers Smith and Jones are certified in both world history and English, and each is willing to teach the two subjects. They can, therefore, cut in half the total number of individual pupils they meet. Smith could instruct groups A and C in history and English, while Jones could do the same with groups B and D.[19]

Another form of teaching team is the grouping of teachers of the same subject and grade level who teach their sections at the same period. For example, three English teachers may find that at a given period each has a class of 30 pupils in junior English. These three teachers may study the three classes they have at this period and conclude that a distribution of 25-40-25 may be better than 30-30-30 If so, they should be privileged to make adjustments accordingly. Obviously, all three classes could be combined for certain learning activities and the three teachers could even trade classes for particular purposes, such as having any one of the three who has a special competency share it with each class in turn. In this plan, as in the block schedule and the little school plan previously described, it is assumed that somewhere in the school plant there is a room or gathering place large enough for such combined groups of pupils to meet. In each of the three plans, too, the member teachers can together set up instructional units and share materials and resources. Special teacher competencies, of course, are of value to other teachers as well as to other pupil groups. Beginning teachers and experienced teachers who may feel at a loss in motivating pupils, for example, can get some pointers from others in the group to whom this is almost second nature.

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[18] Perhaps it would be well to clarify further the terms, little school, teacher team, and block schedule. A *teacher team* could be almost any combination of two or more teachers for any common instructional purpose, either teachers of the same subject or teachers of the same pupils in different subjects. The *block schedule* simply arranges pupils into groups which remain constant through a large portion of the schedule; their teachers may or may not be organized as a team. The *little school* is a larger grouping, perhaps a fourth, a third, or even half the student body usually, although not necessarily, in a certain wing or section of the school plant for pursuit of the common subject areas. The little school has its own teacher chairman or leader. The little school is not only an instructional device; it is also in a sense a decentralization of school administration for pupil-guidance purposes and professional growth of teachers, as well as for program planning.

[19] Regarding teacher teams, see also:

M. D. Lobb and others. "What Are Some Promising Practices in Team Teaching?" National Association of Secondary-School Principals. *The Bulletin* 44: 2-7; April 1960.

R. H. Johnson and others. "Extensive Study of Team Teaching and Schedule Modification in Jefferson County, Colorado." National Association of Secondary-School Principals. *The Bulletin* 44: 79-93; January 1960. In the same issue: M. F. Noall and Lawrell Jensen. "Team Teaching at Roosevelt Junior High School, Duchesne County, Utah"; L. L. Bloomenshine. "Team Teaching in San Diego—The First Year"; W. L. Cooper. "Use of Tapes, Language Laboratory, and Teaching Teams at the J. Sterling Morton High School and Junior College"; William Hurley and others. "Team Teaching and Use of Recorders in Taylorville Senior High School"; R. A. Larmee and Robert Ohm. "University of Chicago Laboratory School Freshman Project Involves Team Teaching, New Faculty Position, and Regrouping of Students."

For a discussion of elementary school teaching teams see: Robert H. Anderson. "Team Teaching in Action." *The Nation's Schools* 65: 62-65, 102-10; May 1960.

The Core Curriculum

The core curriculum, while primarily a restructuring of program content, is certainly dependent upon the teacher-team concept and usually involves block scheduling of pupils. Core teachers, partly through being responsible for a larger area of pupils' learning experiences, partly through having a closer and longer relationship with the pupils, are in a favorable position to help pupils tie together what they learn and to reconstruct what they learn into creative thought and new experience. From the standpoint of scheduling, the core curriculum may be a block of time within which instructional activities are planned by the teacher or teachers concerned; or it may be a grouping of conventional subject areas in which the core teacher works out the instructional units and the time allotted to the various activities included in the general core program.[20]

[20] See: Roland C. Faunce and Nelson L. Bossing. *Developing the Core Curriculum*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. *Developing Programs for Young Adolescents*. Washington, D.C.: the Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1954.

Grace S. Wright. *Block Time Classes and the Core Program in the Junior High School.* Bulletin No. 6. Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1958.

Arno A. Bellack and others. *Preparation of Core Teachers for Secondary Schools.* Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 1955. p. 14.

Educational Television as an Aid in the School Program

Slightly over 100 students entered the large classroom and took their places as the class bell sounded. Four large television sets stood in the room, ready to bring in the lesson in junior English 5. The teacher made some announcements, explained the markings on some returned papers, and raised questions for the pupils to consider and to anticipate in the telecast. Meanwhile, a teaching assistant, whose work as a helper in the television group was part of her regular teaching assignment, checked attendance and quietly helped individual pupils who needed assistance. The pupils were noticeably intent on their work. As the clock moved to telecast time, four boys, almost unnoticed, stepped up to the television sets, turned them on, adjusted the controls, then returned to their seats nearby. The teacher went over to the window side of the room where she could view one of the sets. The helping teacher stood near the classroom door where she could answer questions of visitors or messengers who might come to the room during the telecast.

Background music was heard and the picture of a book came on the screens of the four sets. Next appeared the television studio teacher behind his desk and the camera moved in close as he began his discussion of the story being studied by the hundred students in the large classroom and in two similar classes in high schools across the city. There was enough light in the large classroom for pupils to write notes as the telecast proceeded. There was no turning of pages, however, as the television teacher explored the author's probable intent or described the sharpness of the author's character portrayals. The pupils had already read the story, although it was obvious from numerous small audible reactions of the pupils that they had not thought of some of the possibilities brought out by the teacher. The telecast was 20 minutes long. The sets were turned off, lights were turned up, and then for approximately 25 minutes the pupils and teacher together explored the questions raised before the telecast and those suggested by the telecast. Two interesting characteristics were evident in this discussion. First, the teacher knew these pupils by name and called on them freely in different parts of the room, both volunteers and others. Second, there was a feeling of oneness within this large class and between the pupils and their teacher.

Part of this could be due, of course, to the close planning and cooperative thinking among the classroom teachers and the television studio teacher prior to and following the telecast. The work to be covered was planned, scheduled and developed well ahead of time. The television studio teacher had no other assignment than the 20 minute telecast; the balance of his work day was spent in planning and developing materials for the telecast. Likewise, the classroom television teacher had no other assignment than the one large television class. She could, however, meet with individual pupils or small groups of pupils from her class for conferences in other parts of the day. Marking papers was a big task but she had the assistance of the helping teacher in much of the classroom routine. A few days after the class session described in the preceding paragraph, the classroom television teacher told one of us that three months before she began her part in the television teaching experiment she firmly believed it was impossible to teach a large class effectively. Now this same teacher believes so strongly in the effectiveness of the program that she is trying to persuade other teachers on her faculty to attempt the instruction of large classes.

Other teachers, though, are not easily convinced that large class instruction has possible merit. Even with the promise of balancing large class instruction with use of small groups—in some cases with individual instruction—most teachers and administrators hold strongly to the idea that best teaching will be done in small classes of 25 or less.

In seven years the number of educational television stations in the United States has increased from one to forty-seven. A few of the educational stations are owned and operated by individual school districts. Most of them, however, are cooperative community enterprises in which various agencies combine their resources to support and carry on the television program. In addition, some school systems produce educational programs on facilities and time allotted by local commercial television stations.[21] Also, some employ closed circuit television systems.[22] The tendency for school systems to employ television as an instructional device is related directly to the size of the school system. Only 4 percent of districts in cities of 500,000 population or over do not have, or are not planning to have, some use of television service. On the other hand, 80 percent of the smallest districts do not employ television as an aid to the school program.[23]

Obviously, only a portion of the school curriculum can be allotted to television time on any regularly scheduled basis. In Des Moines, Iowa,

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[21] An example is the seven county cooperative program in elementary Spanish broadcast over KGLO-TV, Mason City, Iowa, 9 to 9:30 a.m. daily. The program involves 126 schools, 3024 sixth grade pupils, and 958 adults. Each adult pays a $6 fee for course outlines and materials. This and two other programs are described in "What Are You Doing About Educational TV?" *School Management* 4: 70-74; May 1960.

[22] Such as Jefferson County, Kentucky, described in *School Management*, August 1958.

[23] "What's New in the Schools?" National Education Association. *Research Bulletin* 38: 47; May 1960.

Station KDPS-TV, currently in its first year of operation, provides school daytime broadcasts in subject areas[24] as follows:

Subject	*Grade*	*Broadcasts weekly*	*Minutes per broadcast*
Spanish*	5–6	5	10
Science*	6	4	20
American literature	11	4	20
American history	7–8	5	20

*Broadcast three times daily to three different groups.

There are other programs telecast from two to three times per week in music, arts and crafts, and social studies, but not on a daily instructional basis. In addition, there are afternoon and evening programs, Mondays through Thursdays, of educational and community interest. The station broadcasts on a VHF channel, so many parents and other community members tune in during school time as well as for the other broadcasts.

What does educational television promise in the school program? It is an important instructional medium. It can bring into the classroom scenes and events which would be difficult to produce otherwise. It employs effectively the technique of large group teaching. It brings to all pupil viewers the skilled instruction of a capable teacher. It presents in dramatic fashion lesson materials and instructional devices not readily available to the conventional classroom teacher. It requires a considerable degree of team planning by teachers and program producers in the enrichment of course content.[25] Generally speaking, school systems using educational television are pleased with results, including pupil growth and achievement in the subject areas televised.[26]

Large Class Instruction

Educational television is, however, a teaching aid and not a teaching substitute. It is expensive, even with financial grants. It is in its beginning stages; much needs to be learned. Nevertheless, television is definitely on the increase and it holds much promise, not only in its educational effectiveness but also in its apparent ability to help school systems and school personnel to supplement and to improve upon conventional organization and method.

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[24] KDPS-TV is owned and operated by the Des Moines Public Schools in cooperation with Polk County schools.

[25] Also in Des Moines, educational television provides vocational training for pupils enrolled in television classes. These pupils, under adult guidance, actually operate the cameras and other studio controls.

[26] For instance read: *Summary of the Washington County Closed-Circuit Educational Television Project.* Hagerstown, Maryland: The Board of Education, 1959.

For an interesting state program, see: Kenneth B. Hobbs. "A New Dimension in Teaching." *Phi Delta Kappan* 40: 161-63; January 1959.

See also: *Design for ETV Planning for Schools with Television.* New York: Dave Chapman, Inc., Industrial Design for Educational Facilities Laboratories, 1960.

The question of large class instruction, even outside the medium of television, is receiving increased and deserved attention. One teacher observed, "If I am to teach the same lesson five times a day to five different groups, I would just as soon get them all together at one time and do a *good* job of teaching with the rest of my day to plan and study." This is perhaps an oversimplification; yet, before the notion is discarded it should be pondered carefully. Is it not possible to choose those features of our instructional offerings which can just as well be presented to a large group in order to make possible the matching of smaller groupings to do the kind of work desired for other phases of the program? This is exactly the kind of possibility explored in the challenging film, . . . *And No Bells Ring.*[27] This and other studies of the Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School[28] should be brought to the attention of every secondary school faculty that is studying the conventional secondary school schedule and instructional organization.[29]

Variations in the Secondary School Schedule

"The master schedule is a source of frequent concern to the principal because it should accommodate changes in persons and programs. Like other changes in education, however, those in scheduling lag far behind the needs for change."[30]

We may believe in the psychology of individual differences but it is not always clear that we want to recognize the differences in school practices. Should all subjects be pursued for the same length of time, the same number of times per week, and the same total number of meeting times for credit? Should all pupils invest the same amount of time in a given course or subject area? Perhaps some pupils really need to pursue a certain study six times per week rather than five. If it could be determined that *all* pupils in a given school need instruction in their full-time subjects on a six times per week basis, a schedule could be devised to make it possible. If, however, it is discovered that some of the pupils do very well with subjects meeting five times per week, while others need to meet six times per week, then of course complications occur. It would certainly take an adventurous faculty to tackle a problem of this kind and the principal would probably need to be a leader who shares his schedule-planning with a staff committee. There is no more certainty, moreover, that if the optimum meeting times per week were established for the various subject areas, they would all turn out to need six any more than we know definitely that they all need five in the conventional schedule. It is possible that, considering needs and priorities, one or two subjects should meet six or more times per week while others now meeting five periods per week could thrive as well on four.[31]

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[27] . . . *And No Bells Ring.* 57 min., 16mm, sound, b&w. National Education Association, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C., 1960.

[28] See the entire issue of *The Bulletin*, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Vol. 44, January 1960.

[29] See: J. Lloyd Trump. "A Better High School Program." *NEA Journal* 49: 41-46; April 1960.

[30] David B. Austin and Noble Gividen. *The High School Principal and Staff Develop the Master Schedule.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1960. p. 5.

Concerning the teacher in situations calling for six periods per week per subject, four such assignments would total 24 periods for the week as compared to 25 periods total for five period classes. It also will be noted that, if we are thinking of classes averaging 30 pupils, the teacher assignment of four six period classes will mean a total of 120 pupils to know and to keep records for instead of 150 in the conventional schedule. There could, of course, be various combinations of six and five period assignments for a teacher, but the variations would involve complications for the schedule designers.[32]

Taking the Conant recommendation of 100 pupils per English teacher,[33] let us observe variations of load factor in these alternatives:

Plan	*Classes assigned*	*Average no. pupils*	*Total pupils*	*Weekly sessions per class*	*Teaching periods per week*
1	5	20	100	5	25
2	4	25	100	5	20
3	4	25	100	6	24

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[31] A faculty in a school in which pupils are testing well above expectations in three subject areas but are falling down in one subject, may want to consider, for a while at least, allotting more schedule time to the subject which is producing disappointing results. Obviously, other factors such as the manner of teaching, and availability of instructional materials, could account for the differences in subject results.

[32] If teacher teams, as described earlier in this chapter, were given jurisdiction of about two-thirds of their pupils' school day, they could plan for and arrange ways of meeting varying instructional needs.

[33] James B. Conant. *The American High School Today.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1959. p. 100.

If the standard on-duty periods per week per teacher in a given school is 26 (to be filled out above class assignments with study halls or similar duties), which alternative would you as an English teacher choose?

The authors are mindful that changes in schedule and teacher assignments, especially in basic patterns and loads, may sometimes virtually be boxed in because of budgetary restrictions. In Des Moines, Iowa, for example, both teachers and administrators would like to change teaching assignments in the junior high schools from six classes daily to five classes daily. The load factor is further emphasized in an average class size of 31 pupils (first semester, 1959-60). To attack this problem directly, however, by employing enough additional teachers to reduce the teaching load to five classes daily, would require over $250,000 in outlay for new salaries.

One possibility being considered is to increase the length of periods so that the four periods per week will equal the total number of minutes formerly given to five periods. Then a schedule will be blocked out in the conventional manner but a different class each day will be dropped from that day's schedule. The schedule would be as follows:

Actual periods	*Meeting Monday*	*Meeting Tuesday*	*Meeting Wednesday*	*Meeting Thursday*	*Meeting Friday*
1	Second	First	First	First	Assembly
2	Third	Third	Second	Second	First
3	Fourth	Fourth	Fourth	Third	Second
4	Fifth	Fifth	Fifth	Fifth	Third
5	Sixth	Sixth	Sixth	Sixth	Fourth

It will be noted in this plan that a teacher with six classes will actually meet each class only four times per week, for a total of 24 sessions weekly, instead of the 30 sessions of the conventional schedule. True, the periods are longer and the total number of pupils is the same.

Is there an advantage in distributing the time among 24 sessions, instead of 30, and in the meeting of five classes daily instead of six? In this type of schedule, care must be taken in assigning classes, such as physical education, which typically would meet two or three times per week, so that such courses will not be limited to only one meeting per week. It is possible, of course, to provide a planning period in such a schedule by setting up a seven period arrangement with only six classes meeting on a given day.

Are we certain that each school day should have the same number of class periods as other days or that the total periods in a weekly schedule should always be in multiples of five? Suppose, for example, that a staff is seeking means of increasing offerings for abler students, and that usually pupils in this school have three study hall periods weekly. Is it not possible to add an offering that meets three periods per week or, if five periods are needed for the new offering, to add two periods to the weekly total and thus use the former study periods for classes?

Again, if the staff believes that 30 periods per week are required in order to provide adequate time for all offerings and if the staff prefers the weekly assembly to have a time of its own and not to be subtracted in various amounts from class meeting time, why cannot there be a 31 period week? Better yet, why not a 32 period week with some time set aside for staff meetings? Here is such a distribution:

	Minutes Assigned					
Periods	*Monday*	*Tuesday*	*Wednesday*	*Thursday*	*Friday*	*Totals*
1	55	42	55	42	55	249
2	55	42	55	42	55	249
3	55	42	55	42	55	249
XX	. .	39	. .	39	. .	78
4	50	50	50	50	50	250
5	50	50	50	50	50	250
6	50	50	50	50	50	250
Totals	315	315	315	315	315	1575

The XX time, of course, can be located in various positions including the beginning and the close of the school day. Thus, if it is decided that on Tuesdays the 39 minutes will be assigned for staff meetings to get under way, this time can be saved until after all the classes have met. Likewise, if the other 39XX time is to be used for assemblies, this too can be located at the desired spot in the schedule. Further, the variations in 55 and 42 minute sessions may be applied to any of the periods. While this schedule is apparently quite workable and has been operated in numerous schools, this arrangement is not quite as easy as it looks because lunch period times, not indicated here, may in some schools be rather inflexible. Of course, an extra passing time for Tuesday and Thursday has to be figured in when the minutes allotted for passing are developed. Nonetheless, this type of schedule is one mechanical means of working toward balance between school needs and school time available.

Another mechanical means of achieving a sort of balance which may be of interest is the practice followed in some schools of assigning classes to different portions of the school day through the week. The purpose, of course, is to give all the classes an opportunity sometime in the week to occupy a favored notch in the schedule, such as the first period of the day. In such a scheme a given English class might be located in the weekly schedule as follows:

	Monday	*Tuesday*	*Wednesday*	*Thursday*	*Friday*
Periods	Second	Sixth	Fourth	Third	First

Other classes would be dispersed accordingly. In addition to the advantage already mentioned, this plan affords a certain luxury to the schedule maker in that he is not bound, as in the conventional schedule, to keep classes in straight rows across the board. Thus, if he needs to assign a second physical education class after all days of a certain period are already taken up (from pupil, teacher or gymnasium standpoint), he is free to utilize any available spot in the schedule. If the school has any pupils, however, in cooperative work programs, this type of schedule would not be suitable for them unless their alternations of work and study are by weeks instead of days.

In summary, in this chapter we have suggested mechanical and organizational factors of school life which influence efforts to balance the instructional program. We have looked at problems of grouping, both elementary and secondary, and have discussed provision for superior students. We have considered the need for articulation in program planning, from kindergarten through grade 12. The role of guidance in planning a balanced program has been studied. Finally, various departures from conventional programing have been mentioned. Any principal or staff member will want to view these considerations in the light of his own experience, his own outlook, and that of his school community. True balance in the curriculum is most likely to emerge through the *balanced* efforts of staff members who sincerely want to achieve balance, and who are willing to plan and work cooperatively and intelligently to bring it about.

CHAPTER EIGHT

Balancing the Roles in Curriculum Decision Making

GERALD B. LEIGHBODY · ERNEST F. WEINRICH

PRECEDING chapters have made clear that many groups, individuals and forces influence the decisions that determine the curriculum. A listing of some of these would include the pupil, the teacher, the administrator, the curriculum specialist, and the subject matter specialist. Members of college staffs exercise an influence. So do citizen advisers, individually and in organized groups, sometimes as formally appointed advisory boards, sometimes self-appointed. Members of boards of education, individually and in action as a board, play a dominant role in the process. Legislative bodies at all levels of government have the power, which they often exercise, to shape the curriculum. Increasingly, commercial interests have a direct or indirect economic stake in what the curriculum includes.

There is no dearth of self-appointed critics in the persons of writers, officials, political figures, and leaders of thought and opinion who create an impact upon the curriculum of the schools. There are the great professional associations, some of them zealous advocates of their particular area of the curriculum. There are the innumerable special interest groups, ranging from the benign but persistent cult to those working militantly for reforms which they deem necessary for the salvation of mankind or the survival of the nation. All these, and others, will be recognized by any experienced curriculum maker as playing a major or a minor role in determining what is taught, how much of it is taught, when it is taught, and often, how it is taught.

How can we evaluate the contributions to curriculum decision making of groups and individuals such as these? First, we must recognize that there is nothing necessarily wrong or improper in the attempts of many of them to make their influence felt. Indeed, as we shall see, it is the duty and function of some of these persons and groups to participate in final decisions in curriculum matters. There is no reason why others should not have the opportunity to have their views considered, providing these are reasonable and legitimate. The basic problem, however, as this volume has suggested again and again, is balance. What educational experiences are best for the welfare of the individual learner and for the society of which he is a member? The curriculum is the school's attempt to answer this question.

Few will disagree that in a free society having a political structure such as ours, the curriculum must reflect the needs and wishes of the people. That the schools belong to the people is an oft-repeated and well-accepted principle. Traditionally, in the United States, the school has been the one service of government which the people have been least willing to entrust to any control that is remote from the local community. Sometimes critics of the social order may deplore what they consider to be the mediocre level of the common denominator of values and the low state of collective wisdom which emerge from an arrangement in which the people retain and exercise the ultimate powers of society. Nevertheless, the alternatives to such an arrangement involve so great a risk to freedom that only those who place no faith in freedom would seriously consider adopting them. The school is society's chief agent for confirming its own beliefs and values as it transmits these to the next generation. It is therefore unrealistic to suppose that the curriculum, which the school uses to accomplish this, can ever be free from pressures which represent themselves to be the popular will. The important thing, however, is the manner in which the schools respond to these pressures.

Let it be acknowledged at once that the curriculum cannot be static or unchanging. There are some who believe that it can and should be. A study of the "great books," for example, would in the minds of some be an appropriate curriculum for all men, in all places, at all times. Regardless of such beliefs, the increasing speed with which new knowledge is emerging in every area of human thought and endeavor compels change in the curriculum. Besides this, there is no indication that our people are willing to retreat from the position that there must be an education provided for each individual who is born—an education suited to his needs, abilities and capacities. This too has compelled curriculum change, and will require more. Even those aspects of the curriculum which are so basic that they must always persist cannot remain unaffected by the light of new knowledge. In this sense, then, no balance which is achieved can be a static balance. How then, can change take place without bringing imbalance?

Application of Values

Earlier chapters of this volume have made it clear that a set of values, a system of beliefs, may be used to evaluate suggestions, viewpoints and decisions relating to curriculum balance. We have now reached a point at which certain of these values may be applied as we observe the interaction of the many influences which tend to shape the curriculum. As we do so, it is well to be fully aware that values can be, and often are, in conflict and that any attempt to apply values is likely to bring disagreement. The conflicts and disagreements may be mild and reconcilable, or they may be so fundamental and strong that they lead to positions which are quite incompatible. When faced with such ultimate value conflicts with respect to the curriculum, it is the task of educational leadership to throw its full skill and influence toward the side of democratic values and the ethical concomitants which support these values.

It is also important to recognize that our attachment to one set of values rather than another is closely related to the psychological factors which help account for the behavior of individuals and groups. The self-perceptions of individuals and groups—that is, the role and the status in which they perceive themselves in relation to others, and how they believe themselves to be perceived by others—powerfully influence the values they will accept. This chapter will discuss the roles of various individuals, groups and institutional structures, represented by people who contribute to the interplay of forces acting upon curriculum decisions. Role conflicts between and among them will frequently be implicit, and will occasionally be pointed up in the discussion. Some of these persons and groups are in a position to invoke strong sanctions to support their own value judgments. Such a position of leverage raises the interesting question of the appropriate response of educational leadership under such circumstances. There are few areas of the educational enterprise in which the opportunities and the difficulties are as great for securing the fulfillment of the learning process, together with the individual fulfillment of all who share in the process, as in the area of curriculum development.

It often requires considerable insight to realize that an individual or a group may adopt and defend a set of values for reasons that are only partly related to the position taken on a curriculum matter. Human motivation and behavior follow extremely complex patterns, seldom subject to complete analysis. Certain individuals find themselves with unmet needs for recognition and approval, for status which cannot be achieved directly because of social inhibitions, or for some satisfaction which their present situation does not fulfill. These needs may manifest themselves in attitudes and values which, if given full expression in curriculum matters, would destroy curriculum balance. The process of achieving and maintaining curriculum balance consists largely of reducing and harmonizing conflicting motivations and values without compromising the democratic essentials which undergird the American society. Leadership that can recognize and take account of the dynamics of individual and group motivations will be much more successful than a kind of leadership that lacks capacity to understand or utilize these factors. We must not forget that values can change and can be changed. The modification and extension of values that come with greater knowledge and better insights may be among the most valuable growth products of shared curriculum development.

Guidelines for Assessing Roles

What value bases may we suggest as guides in considering proposals for curriculum change? Generally speaking we may say that an individual or a group may properly seek to bring about change in the school curriculum provided that

1. The result will not threaten the educational welfare of any individual pupil or group of pupils.
2. The proposed change is not for the ego-satisfaction of some individual or group which seeks to impose its minority views on the majority.
3. The proposed change does not represent or conceal a means for bringing financial or economic benefits to those advocating the change.
4. The proposed change is not intended as a means for gaining social or political advantage.
5. The change which is proposed does not require diminished emphasis upon existing aspects of the curriculum which have proven value.
6. The change will better provide for the needs of individual learners and the emerging needs of the free society in which they must play their adult roles.

There are continual attempts to modify the curriculum in violation of these principles. That these attempts are often made by well-meaning people, who are impelled more by emotion than by reason, does not lessen the danger to curriculum balance from this source. Everyone who has a major curriculum responsibility knows that scarcely a month passes without an attempt by some group to promote a curriculum change which will enhance its own fortunes in some direct or remote fashion. Among such groups are those that have a cause to advance which, in their view, receives all too little support because of insufficient understanding by others. To these groups the school curriculum offers an ideal means for widespread indoctrination, disguised as education, on behalf of the cause they advocate.

Groups and individuals who seek to influence the curriculum for reasons such as these have no legitimate claim to consideration by curriculum makers. Indeed, it is the duty of those who have curriculum responsibilities to resist actively the efforts of such individuals or groups to invade the curriculum with their proposals. On the other hand, those who have reasonable proposals for curriculum changes which can pass the value tests mentioned are entitled to honest and serious consideration by persons who have official responsibility for curriculum decisions. The attempts to influence the curriculum by individuals or groups seeking their own ends, however, are becoming more sophisticated and subtle. It is becoming more and more difficult, in many cases, to identify the influence for what it is and to test it against the values which we hold. Experience, integrity and skill in critical analysis are becoming more and more important for persons who must make the final decisions.

Role of the Pupil

Since the object of the curriculum is to provide learning experiences for pupils, the pupil must have an important part to play in curriculum determination. To be effective, learning experiences must be adapted to the abilities, aptitudes, interests and needs of the learner. A curriculum that is designed largely to provide factual knowledge and the practice of intellectual skills for pupils of superior intellectual ability is a one-sided curriculum in terms of the needs and capacities of many of the pupils in our schools today. A balanced curriculum for today's schools is a curriculum which provides diversity for diverse needs.

The modern concept of a curriculum is that a series of learning opportunities is planned and carried out by teacher and pupils working together. This differs from an earlier view which regarded the curriculum as a body of prescribed factual knowledge to be transmitted by the teacher to the pupils, and mastered by them (at least temporarily) through memorization, recitation and drill, and to be reproduced upon demand of the teacher. Although most learning still involves understanding and control of knowledge and of skills, modern teaching recognizes a somewhat different role for the learner. More effective learning results for the active, rather than the passive learner. The most skillful teachers today make use of pupil-teacher planning, and of methods by which learning not only takes place in a more meaningful context, but also becomes a shared experience in which the teacher functions as the mature leader. In this kind of situation the curriculum is actually under development by the pupils themselves as the learning proceeds.

Role of the Teacher

No curriculum has much meaning until the teacher brings it to life in the school setting. The teacher, more than any other individual, determines whether learners actually benefit by the activities and opportunities which the curriculum makers have planned. Since teachers play such a critical role in this process, it is clear that they need to understand and believe in the purposes, as well as the content, which the curriculum provides. In our society, we boast that teachers are free to teach —that they are not under orders to indoctrinate. Therefore, our teachers have a greater stake in the curriculum itself than would be the case if they were merely agents of state policy.

We have learned many things about the democratic process, about a social organization in which each individual has a voice. An important lesson we have learned is that the best way for an individual to gain an accurate understanding of a group decision or plan, so that he can give it intelligent support, is to participate in the decision making or planning process. This means that the teacher's role in curriculum making must be an active one. To provide for this requires, first, a recognition of the necessity for such participation, and second, an organizational means to make this participation possible.

Involving the teacher in curriculum making often presents difficulties which might be avoided by having a few "experts" do the job. By teacher involvement, much more time will be consumed. More viewpoints will need to be reconciled. Such a process may cost more money, because teachers will need to be relieved periodically from their teaching duties in order to participate. Yet teachers are the best judges of the "teachability" of proposed content. Of all persons who may contribute to curriculum decisions, teachers are closest to the pupils and their needs. Indeed, the one possible weakness in teachers' viewpoints on the curriculum may be that they are so close to the curriculum in practice that they may at times lack perspective. If so, this can be balanced by the views of others.

That teachers *can* successfully participate in curriculum planning, even in a large school system, was demonstrated recently in one of our large cities where the elementary curriculum was under revision. Here, of the 1300 elementary teachers employed in the schools, more than 800 participated voluntarily in committees for a period of one year, and during a second year made a complete evaluation of the revised curriculum in action in their classrooms. This project was possible largely because these teachers had faith that their suggestions and recommendations would find their way into the curriculum guides that finally resulted from their effort. Administrative leadership that believed in the importance of the teachers' role was responsible for this faith on their part.

After the curriculum—that is, the total of the pupils' educational experiences and opportunities—has been agreed upon, it is important to organize the program so that the teacher is left free to teach.

Such freedom goes well beyond a mere absence of restraint and of prescribed activities and methods. When conditions are at their best, the atmosphere in the American classroom fosters and encourages a free, creative interplay of intellect and spirit between pupils and teacher and between pupil and pupil. In an atmosphere of mutual respect, the excellent teacher encourages pupils to range freely in their discussions, researching and knowledge seeking. The curriculum, ultimately, is what happens to pupils and teacher under such conditions; and in this respect, the American teacher plays a somewhat unique role.

In many European countries and elsewhere, the teacher is required to carry out the instruction implied by the curriculum in strict conformity with the regulations of a Ministry of Education. This applies not only to content, but also to timing and method. The teacher's work is highly prescribed. The role which is occupied by the supervisor in the United States becomes, in these countries, that of *inspector* and is known by this title. It is the task of the inspector to see to it that the curriculum is literally and uniformly followed by all teachers. Educators from other lands, visiting the United States, are often confused and surprised by the absence of such central control and direction in our schools. They find that what is *inspection* under their systems becomes *supervision* in the United States, and that supervision consists largely of the help that a mature and experienced worker provides all teachers to improve their teaching. Supervisors in American schools tend to perform their work by guiding, counseling, demonstrating and interpreting the curriculum, and helping teachers to secure and use the best materials and techniques for teaching. A teacher should never be made to think that a supervisor's goal is to see to it that he conforms.

Role of the Building Principal

Except for the teacher, no one exercises a more direct influence upon the curriculum in action than does the building principal. A strong teacher may occasionally be able to carry out a curricular pattern that is not subscribed to by the principal. Generally speaking, however, the curriculum identified in a school is largely the reflection of what the principal believes, encourages or neglects. The curriculum, and the way it is administered, largely determines the intellectual, emotional and personal development of each child in the school. Curriculum, therefore, should be the principal's chief concern. He should contribute actively to curriculum development and change by means of his own professional knowledge and skill. He should also serve effectively as a question-raiser, helping teachers maintain a critical and thoughtful attitude toward learning experiences. If desired goals are to be achieved, the principal must create and maintain within the school a favorable climate for teaching and for learning. He must be receptive to new ideas and to the introduction of changes which offer promise of better learning results. Above all, the principal needs to play the role of a facilitator—one who makes it possible for every teacher to achieve the goals for which the curriculum is designed.

The principal who neglects his responsibilities to the curriculum, or who misinterprets them, can impair the effectiveness of the curriculum or create serious curriculum imbalances. Teachers cannot perform successfully in the face of administrative indifference or hostility to the goals they are trying to reach. They need the friendly, sympathetic and supportive encouragement which stems from understanding and belief in what they are trying to do. They need to be provided with the kind of facilities, equipment, materials, time and information about pupils which will make their task possible and satisfying. The principal who permits curriculum to be governed by administrative convenience or expedience defeats the goals of a good curriculum.

The principal who directs learning experiences within the school to satisfy his pet goals destroys curriculum balance. There have been principals who have sought a widespread reputation for their schools for some single accomplishment, such as developing the best band in the state, winning the most essay contests, or being recognized for the teaching of patriotism. In some such instances there is a possibility that the activities represent a kind of ego satisfaction on the part of the principal, and a means of bringing prominence to himself. Whatever the reason, the result is often a school in which curriculum balance has been lost.

The principal should be the instructional leader within the school. If he is thoroughly secure in this role, and is a person with real leadership qualities, he will work cooperatively with others in developing and administering the curriculum. However, if he is insecure, he may feel threatened and interfered with by supervisors, curriculum coordinators, and teachers. The self-image of the principal has much to do with his success in his role as a curriculum leader, and thus has much to do with curriculum balance.

Role of the Curriculum Specialist

The curriculum specialist is a relative newcomer to the ranks of specialized professional personnel serving the school program. He may serve under various titles, such as director of curriculum, curriculum chairman, curriculum coordinator, supervisor, consultant, or, in large systems, assistant superintendent for curriculum or instruction.

His contribution is best made, however, when he assumes a coordinating rather than a directing role. As a competent professional person the curriculum specialist can scarcely avoid having his own judgments and convictions enter to some extent into the curriculum decisions with which he is so directly involved. Within limits, there is no reason why this should not be so. He will serve better, however, by playing down his own direct contributions to the curriculum in favor of contributions by others.

The curriculum specialist plays his part best when serving as an organizer, leader, stimulator and team manager of the groups of professional and lay persons who make the major contributions to the curriculum. He is skilled in means for securing participation by others in the curriculum enterprise. He has a talent for weaving contributions by many persons into something unified and interrelated, into a result in which each individual's contribution finds a place. He has skills in editing, and knows much about the mechanics of planning, producing, disseminating and using curriculum materials. The curriculum specialist is able to put into teachable form the material which comes to him from various sources and which is approved for inclusion in the curriculum. If he also possesses the kind of personality and skill which easily enable him to win the confidence and respect of teachers, he can often perform a valuable service by helping teachers to understand and interpret the curriculum and to select and use the materials which support it.

The curriculum specialist should not, however, attempt to make major curriculum decisions. He should not assume the role of the administrator in curriculum matters. On the other hand it is his function to prepare curriculum proposals, based upon the contributions of others, for consideration by the administrator who in turn will make recommendations for adoption. The curriculum specialist is a staff member, and as such he should learn to prepare curriculum proposals and materials in clear, concise and complete form for presentation to the administration for consideration.

Partly because of his recent arrival upon the educational scene, and partly because of the nature of his function, the curriculum specialist may find his role misunderstood and resented by others who have a curriculum responsibility. Generally speaking, he represents change, and change is seldom welcomed by those whose roles have the sanction of tradition. A suggestion that the curriculum may be improved is often taken as a reflection upon their own work by teachers, principals or other administrators who have helped to create the curriculum as it is. To be successful, therefore, the curriculum specialist must be able to understand others' feelings. He must realize the kind of threat that he poses in the minds of others and must be able to approach his task in a way that will dispel their fears and help them to accept him as a co-worker who can be of great assistance to them.

Role of the Chief School Administrator

The administrator usually finds that the public looks to him more than to anyone else for justification of the existing curriculum and for leadership and initiative in curriculum matters. If he is the chief school officer in a community or a state, the board of education which employs him tends to hold him responsible for determining, with his staff, what the curriculum shall be. In delegating such responsibility to its chief administrator, the board of education may recognize some of the many influences relating to the curriculum, including its own, to which the administrator is subject.

As persons holding positions of educational leadership, administrators at every level exercise an important influence upon the curriculum. If the administrator has earned, through his own stature, scholarship and competence, the respect which his position implies, his views on curriculum matters will, and should, carry much weight. In some instances, however, administrators have apparently lost touch with the public will. In such cases unfortunate conflicts have developed about what the curriculum should be and should do. This is often a result of failure in educational leadership. In other instances curriculum conflicts have developed because an administrator has been unwilling to accept curriculum changes demanded by small, but perhaps powerful groups, which are in violation of the principles for curricular change described in this chapter. Administrators who take such a courageous position, even though they may be defeated in so doing, exemplify the best traditions of professional leadership.

One function of the chief school administrator is to recommend to the board of education curriculum decisions which he can approve. Of course, no wise administrator will make such recommendations without using all the resources of staff competence and advice at his command, without taking full account of all public views, and without reference to the principles or values which have been suggested. An administrator who is competent to fill the decision making role will surely have convictions of his own with respect to the kind of curriculum he is willing to endorse. It is his privilege and responsibility to contribute his own views and convictions before final decisions are made. The role of the administrator, then, particularly the chief administrator, is to eliminate those influences on curriculum which are not consistent with the principles which have been described, to resolve and take into account those that are set forth, to contribute from his own knowledge and experience, and to make final curriculum recommendations.

Because the administrator occupies such a critical position with respect to curriculum, he should maintain as impartial and objective an attitude as possible in all curriculum decisions. He must be able to distinguish between views which he holds as a result of critical and sound analysis, based upon research-supported facts on the one hand, and opinions, pet theories and unverified beliefs on the other. He must be willing to permit the former to enter into his decisions while carefully attempting to analyze and evaluate the latter.

The administrator can influence the curriculum in another way. This is through his control of finance. Even after a curriculum has been agreed upon and adopted, the administrator can determine its effectiveness to some extent through his power to allocate funds. He can, if he is disposed to do so, even favor certain aspects of the curriculum as compared with others. Such favoritism can actually bring about distortion in an otherwise well-balanced curriculum. Use of fiscal power or policy by an administrator for such a purpose is, of course, unprofessional and improper, and every administrator needs to guard against such manipulation through administrative authority.

The role of the administrator in relation to curriculum goes far beyond the adoption of the curriculum or its changes. He must assume leadership in the continuing interpretation of the curriculum and its goals to the staff and to the public. He must frequently and effectively answer questions such as: "Why this curriculum? What makes it a good curriculum for our children? What about the criticisms which we read and hear concerning it?" In curriculum, as in all other aspects of public education, the people must be informed and active partners with the school. Under our system, citizens are always partners. They can be uninformed, suspicious and unfriendly partners, or they can be informed, helpful and constructive supporters, depending upon the extent of their participation and the degree of their understanding.

Role of the Subject Matter Specialist

The specialist in a subject matter area is usually a scholar in a particular field of learning. He represents a prime resource in determining what is to be taught in his special field, what the emphases are to be, and what sequences of learning are to be followed. Those who make final curriculum decisions must necessarily give careful consideration to the advice of the subject matter expert in relation to his area. Yet there is no more certain way to develop imbalance in the curriculum than to permit a scholar in any one of the areas of subject matter to dictate the extent to which his subject shall be taught or the amount of time to be devoted to it.

To be a respected scholar in any field of learning, all of one's intellectual powers, energies, loyalties and enthusiasms must be concentrated in the pursuit of the scholarly endeavors represented by the chosen field. Indeed, the depth of interest may go beyond the intellectual, and may involve the personal and the emotional. Few persons can be good scholars or good teachers of a subject without such involvement. Unfortunately, however, from the point of view of curriculum balance, the very qualities which may enhance scholarship often prevent an unbiased and objective judgment in relating one's field of scholarship to the importance of other areas of learning. More often than not, if given full power of decision, the subject matter specialist will create a more favorable and more extensive place in the curriculum for his own subject area than is justified in terms of curriculum balance, or of a balanced and well-rounded education for the child or young person. He is apt to find universal need for his subject, and to regard lightly the claims of scholars in other fields for an equal share of curriculum time and attention. Such attitudes are not confined to those engaged in the traditional areas of academic subject matter, but are equally pronounced among those who are specialists in the nonacademic areas.

The scholar-specialist obviously must contribute to the curriculum as changes in his field of scholarship and knowledge come ever more frequently in a rapidly changing world. At the same time, his scholarship must be kept related to the realities of current social problems, and to the changes in other disciplines which contribute to the total curriculum.

Recognizing that the views of all subject matter specialists on these matters can never be fully reconciled, curriculum builders, and ultimately the administrators, must bring forth from the contributions of each a curriculum program that represents a balanced and defensible whole. The curriculum specialist and the administrator should be scholars of curriculum, in the same sense that others are scholars in recognized subject matter fields. Such a scholarly attainment demands a working knowledge of many fields of scholarship—that is, a broadly based education that should be the foundation preparation for any administrator or curriculum worker. This, of course, must be followed by lifelong interest, study and activity in the field of curriculum development, practice and evaluation. Only persons with such interests and experience can successfully guide the making of decisions which result in a balanced curriculum.

Role of the Textbook

The textbook is probably the most frequently used instructional aid in the American classroom. At the same time it is probably one of the most effective determiners of what is taught in a particular area of knowledge. The textbook, too, is a force which tends to maintain existing balances in curriculum or change these balances slowly. A publisher must consider the potential market for his books and is therefore more likely to publish texts which reflect changes in curriculum balance that have already been accepted and approved by a sizable market.

The use the teacher makes of the textbook is a significant factor. In the hands of a creative teacher, the text is not a mere collection of pages to be assigned in daily doses. Rather than being dominated by the text, such a teacher uses it as only one of the tools of learning to assist the student in achieving specific goals of instruction that the teacher and the pupil clearly have in mind.

It is interesting to speculate upon the potential effect of television upon textbooks and curriculum balance. We may be entering an era emphasizing the use of television in instruction, with texts being used more as resource materials. It is possible, too, that instead of a single comprehensive text for the course, there will be many shorter, inexpensive "texts," each covering only a few specific topics or units but including much more descriptive and source material. Such changes are likely to produce a greater responsiveness to curriculum change and curriculum balance.

Role of the Higher Schools

It is well known that for many years after the establishment of high schools in the United States, their curriculums were dictated by the colleges. During the early history of the high school there was some justification for this domination of the curriculum by the colleges, since the task of these early schools was almost entirely the preparation of youth for college entrance. During the past 30 years, however, there has been a radical change in the character and ability distribution of the high school population. This change has required a general revision in the goals of the high school program, leaving preparation for college as only one of several major goals, and for only a portion of the students enrolled. This has naturally tended to weaken the influence of the college and university upon the total curriculum of the high school. During the same period research has demonstrated that there is no single curricular pattern at the high school level which produces graduates who are later more successful in college. These research results, together with other influences, brought about a liberalization in entrance requirements by the colleges and caused a shift in their emphasis to more generalized scholastic aptitudes and records. Until recently, therefore, the role of the college in determining the curriculum of the high school has been a diminishing, although still important one.

The recent and current public alarm about the adequacy of educational programs at all levels may result in a return of the formerly strong influence of the colleges on the curriculums of the lower schools. Colleges, no less than other schools, are subject to the beliefs of the public regarding what their curriculums shall be and the rigor of the programs which shall be required of their students. Colleges are as apt to be swayed by public hysteria, and by unsound but powerfully-backed proposals, as are other schools. The increasingly greater premium being placed in the public mind upon higher education for more young people will inevitably increase the power of the colleges to shape the curriculum of the secondary schools. To the extent, therefore, that colleges permit their own programs to become unbalanced (by an uncritical accommodation to the demand for more science, mathematics or foreign languages, for example), imbalance in the curriculum of the secondary schools will surely follow.

At present, there is a movement which would press capable students to complete courses in the high school which have formerly been part of a college curriculum. This movement appears to have the support of some colleges and has been formalized under the title of the Advanced Placement Program. For certain students, who have achieved the necessary maturity, such an arrangement may have value. A danger, already apparent, is that such advancement will be recommended, and soon expected, of all students who have good intellectual capacity, in spite of the fact that there is no evidence that such acceleration would be to the advantage of all such students. As might be expected, this pressure from certain college and secondary school groups is already being felt at the junior high school and elementary school levels, in which able pupils are encouraged to pursue subjects which have formerly been reserved for the senior high school program. Such chain reactions are typical of the manner in which decisions at higher levels of education, taken unilaterally, may create imbalance in the curriculum at other levels. Curriculum change that is accomplished in this way violates the principle suggested earlier that a change should not be made if it threatens the educational well-being of any pupil or requires diminished emphasis upon existing aspects of the curriculum which have proven value.

Is it wise to permit colleges and universities to control the curriculum for secondary schools, when less than a majority of the pupils enrolled in the secondary schools are now entering college? We must remind ourselves that although the actual number of students enrolled in colleges will increase greatly during the next decade, their numbers will still not be much greater in terms of the percentage of the age groups which they represent, unless the colleges drastically reduce their scholastic standards. The findings of the President's Commission on Higher Education, released in 1948, showed that not more than 32 percent of the population possesses the intellectual capacity to complete a four year degree program as presently offered at the college level. The colleges, therefore, should not be allowed to influence the program of the elementary and secondary schools in ways which will affect the welfare of the majority of all students who do not go to college.

Role of the Board of Education

The board of education represents the people, and when acting in its official capacity, its decisions with regard to curriculum are final. Such decisions, of course, must conform to state and federal laws when such laws are involved, and in some states, to the curriculum policy of the state education department. To a large extent, however, the final approval of the local curriculum is in the hands of the board of education. This obviously places an important and heavy responsibility upon the board.

Most boards of education rely heavily upon the professional staff, and especially the chief school administrator, for advice in making curriculum decisions. In most cases, because the staff is competent and enjoys the confidence of the board, staff recommendations regarding the curriculum are followed. Yet it would be a mistake for an administrator to take for granted the board's approval of any aspect of the curriculum or to be satisfied with having curriculum decisions controlled entirely by the staff. Board members are often closer to public thinking than are administrators. Dissatisfaction with the curriculum by even a minority of the public is likely to reach the ear of a board member before the staff becomes aware of it. An administrator who enjoys his board's confidence will find the complaint passed along to him with a suggestion that the matter be studied. Still better is a board member who is so well informed about the curriculum that he can at once defend it to an uninformed or unreasonable citizen. The administrator should involve the board so thoroughly in curriculum matters that its members understand and support a curriculum because they believe in it, as well as in the staff.

More than one observer has noted the tendency of board members to be occupied almost exclusively with finance, buildings and the business management of the schools, leaving matters of curriculum and teaching largely to the judgment of the professional staff. For an administrator to permit such a situation to develop is both unwise and dangerous. If a time comes when the curriculum is seriously attacked, regardless of the soundness of the challenge, the administrator under such circumstances may find himself standing alone in attempting to defend the curriculum. The board may even feel a well-justified resentment because it is called upon to answer public criticism about an aspect of school operation about which it knows all too little. Because the board holds ultimate responsibility for curriculum, its members should make all curriculum decisions with full information and understanding, based upon sound advice of its professional staff. Because the curriculum is the heart of the school program, the board of education should give it priority in interest and deliberation.

Board members should be alert to the danger of creating imbalance through the great power they possess in determining the curriculum. There have been instances in which individual board members have advocated curriculum changes that would lead to imbalance. As a rule, such members fail to see that their proposals would result in one-sided education, yet often this can be demonstrated for them by a competent and skillful administrator or by fellow board members. Occasionally a board member is elected by a minority segment of the voters to represent their views with respect to the school program. If such views violate sound educational philosophy and practice, other board members and administrators have no choice but to oppose these views, using facts, research findings, and reason as their weapons.

Far more often we find board members exercising admirable and constructive leadership with respect to the curriculum. Often a board member, because of particular training or experience, will develop a strong and wholesome interest in some aspect of the curriculum. Because of his position on the board, he can take pride in lending his leadership and support to the curriculum area of his interest, at the same time that he takes a genuine and informed interest in all other areas of the curriculum. Again, an alert administrator who has the confidence of his board members can forestall the overzealousness of individual members for one specific part of the curriculum. He can do this by keeping all board members aware of the danger of curriculum imbalance while, at the same time, encouraging their special interest in curriculum matters.

Role of the State Education Department

The influence of state education authorities upon the curriculum varies widely throughout the country. This is true, both regarding the amount of influence these authorities can bring to bear and the nature of their influence upon the local school curriculum. Such influence may be great, as in New York State, or less so, as in states where leadership has much less force, in law or in practice.

The State of New York offers an example of one of the most powerful and centralized education authorities at the state level. This is because of the unusual constitutional provisions in this state, which give control of all education, public and private at all levels, to a state board of education, known as the Board of Regents, and to its chief administrator, chosen by the board, the Commissioner of Education. Regulations of the Commissioner, endorsed by the Board of Regents, with respect to education have the force of law. For many years, under this arrangement, the curriculum in local schools in New York was controlled to a considerable degree by state requirements. Curriculum was further influenced and kept uniform, especially in high schools, through the use of the Regents examinations, prepared and distributed by the State Education Department. These examinations are still widely used, although on a much more selective basis than formerly.

Although the Board of Regents has fixed minimum curriculum requirements which must be observed by local schools at both the elementary and secondary levels, beyond these minimums the curriculum is subject to local decision. In the realm of higher education the curriculum is subject to approval of the Board of Regents through its power to charter the colleges and universities and to demand certain standards in so doing. Although retaining its powers to police and control, the New York State Department of Education, which is the professional arm of the Board of Regents, has increasingly assumed a positive role with respect to curriculum. The department emphasizes leadership, research, preparation of curriculum materials, and high level consultative service in the interest of improving the quality of curriculum and teaching. In this role it has been increasingly successful.

Those without firsthand familiarity with a highly centralized state education authority, such as that in New York, may find a sharp contrast between the role of state authorities in this and in many other states. Clearly, when power to determine educational practice is concentrated as it is in New York, hasty or ill-informed decisions taken by state officials could quickly result in curriculum imbalance throughout the state. Under these conditions only the most careful, most thoughtful, and most professional approach to curriculum problems by these state authorities can assure the curriculum balance that is needed.

Role of Legislation

One of the most direct ways in which curriculum balance can be affected is through legislation. It is reasonable to expect state legislatures to make minimum curriculum requirements, but to the degree that such legislation prescribes time to be allotted to a given subject or at what grade level a subject should be taught, balance in the curriculum is affected.

Fortunately, state legislatures have in general delegated the responsibility for the curriculum to the commissioner or superintendent of education and a state board of regents or state board of education. In Delaware, for example, the State Board of Education is required to determine minimum studies for elementary and secondary schools. In each district local boards of education are to adapt courses of study which are in accordance with the rules and regulations set forth by the state board. In New York State, the Board of Regents is to prescribe courses set forth in the statutes. California law requires that a course of study for each high school shall be prepared under the direction of the governing body and shall be subject to approval by the State Board of Education.[1] Legislation of specific course requirements is necessarily a piecemeal process. In general, our state legislatures have recognized this by the fact that the responsibility for the curriculum has been placed in the hands of state and local boards.

The danger of specific curriculum prescription by legislation, and of its implications for curriculum balance, however, is always present. In the opinion of some observers, lay people have turned to legislatures to a significant extent for curriculum changes, believing that this was the quickest way to effect change. Some objections to this action are:

1. Sound balance in the curriculum can only be maintained by those charged

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[1] Reynolds C. Seitz. "Supervision of Public Elementary and Secondary School Pupils Through State Control over Curriculum and Textbook Selection." *Law and Contemporary Problems* 20: 106-24; Winter 1955. Copyright, 1955, by Duke University.

with the responsibility for studying the curriculum as a whole in terms of the goals which are to be achieved.

2. A balanced curriculum implies change. Desirable changes are more quickly added or deleted by state and local agencies responsible for the curriculum. Although state legislation can be changed, school law possesses a rather ponderous inertia, and states tend to imitate the laws of other states. The net result of extensive legislative prescription is likely to be a static curriculum.

3. Legislative prescription is also likely to lead to curriculum imbalance. Such prescriptions are usually the result of work by pressure groups interested in a particular subject or in the education of a particular group of children. Most of the proposals of these groups have some merit; but the question is, "What priorities should be established, within the limits of time and resources likely to be available, consistent with the goals of public education?"[2]

In the early part of this century there was a rapid trend toward legislative prescription of the curriculum. In some states this was followed by a trend toward complete elimination of such prescriptions in favor of authorizing the state superintendent and state board of education to make such curriculum regulations. The latter trend, however, has not been without interruption. In 1943, Ohio removed all statutory requirements, except one unit of American history, but in 1955 abandoned this policy. Also in 1955 Ohio made instruction mandatory in seven fields of study and included a provision concerning sequence by directing that geography, U. S. history, U. S. government, and other basic social studies must be studied by pupils before they may secure instruction in courses involving more controversial areas, such as economics, foreign affairs, and the United Nations.[3]

The potential effect of legislative prescriptions upon curriculum can be seen in a bill introduced recently in one of our state legislatures which would require four years of science and four years of mathematics for all students as a condition of graduation from high school. Prescriptive legislation of this type sharply narrows the area for educational leadership in curriculum development which should be exercised by educational leaders at the state and local levels. Such time-prescriptions also sharply reduce the choices a student can make to meet his special needs.

A much less restrictive mandate is the New York State requirement that at least one year of science and one year of mathematics be required of all high school graduates. At the elementary level, the law requires that science be included in the list of subject areas taught at the elementary level. There is no prescription concerning grade placement or time. The implementation rests at state and local levels.

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[2] *Ibid.*, p. 109.

[3] "Ohio's New Curriculum Requirements—Editorial Comments." *Educational Research Bulletin* 33: 187-89; October 1955.

Some observers of school legislation during the past decade believe that leadership in curriculum development has not been seriously hampered by legislation. The conclusions of these observers add further light to the problem of legislation and its influence on balance in the curriculum:

> Curricular changes, particularly the addition of new courses or activities, usually have originated on the local level. State statutes for the most part have followed rather than preceded curricular innovations in enterprising local districts.[4]
>
> Even though some prescriptive legislation may hinder desirable curriculum changes, state legislation may be changed if the people so desire.[5]
>
> There has been an increase in prescriptive legislation affecting the high school curriculum, but this has been at a diminishing rate.[6]
>
> Fortunately, the large percentage of these laws are so general and reasonable as respecting grade placement of the fundamental subjects as to cause no concern. The majority of states still allow a substantial chance for local communities to work out a curriculum to meet their own needs. School laws have not closed the door to the professional educator to make a major contribution to curriculum planning.[7]

Role of the Federal Government

The twentieth century has seen a considerable increase in funds supplied by the federal government for education. The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 was a definite attempt to affect curriculum balance by supplying funds for vocational education. Other major legislation passed during the World War II period provided funds to insure further educational opportunities for veterans. The most significant recent legislation affecting balance in the curriculum is the National Defense Education Act. This act singles out mathematics, science and foreign languages as the areas in which the curriculum should be improved and balances revised.

Although many provisions of the National Defense Education Act have been effective in stimulating curriculum change and development, some educators and laymen have expressed these concerns:

[4] E. Edmund Reutter, Jr. "The Law and the Curriculum." *Law and Contemporary Problems* 20: 91-103; Winter 1955. Copyright, 1955, by Duke University.

[5] Norman E. Dilley. "The Legal Aspects of Curriculum Improvement." *Journal of Educational Research* 48: 153-59; October 1954.

[6] Douglas A. Lehman. *Legislative Control of the Secondary Curriculum, 1941-53.* Doctoral thesis. Pittsburgh, Pa.: University of Pittsburgh, 1955. p. 306. Abstract: *Dissertation Abstracts* 15: 2453; No. 12, 1955.

[7] Reynolds C. Seitz, *op. cit.*, p. 109.

1. The act appears to set a precedent for changing curriculum balances in line with national emergencies.

2. It reduces local curriculum control.

3. It reduces emphasis upon curriculum areas which may be equally or even more vital for our long-range survival.

The National Defense Education Act points up a growing realization across the nation that education is linked with our national survival. The National Defense Education Act and the National Science Foundation are adding more instructional materials and emphasis to science, mathematics and foreign languages in our schools. The concern of some educators and laymen is that similar piecemeal federal support will continue and will be expanded without taking into account the need for balance in the curriculum as a whole. This concern is expressed by one writer as follows:

> The NDEA has established the principle of federal support of education, and since he sees little doubt that the program will grow, he believes a long-term educational policy should be worked out. Such a policy should recognize the fact that federal aid will mean some degree of federal control and should therefore provide assurance that the control will be exercised by responsible people and subject to public scrutiny. There should also be protection against the danger that federal aid will become the province of special-interest groups.[6]

Recent events have focused attention upon science, mathematics and foreign languages in the curriculum as being particularly related to national defense. Can the values and purposes discussed in earlier chapters of this book be safeguarded without similar recognition of the importance of other areas in the curriculum? It needs to be emphasized that a well-balanced curriculum for all children and youth is vitally important for our long-range survival. This emphasis and understanding must make deeper impact upon the thinking of individuals and groups with responsibility at local, state and national levels for the planning and support of public education. The professional educator must exert vigorous leadership to see that curriculum balance is maintained and that *the total program* is improved as well as those areas for which special funds may have been appropriated.

Another example of the expanding role of the federal government in activities affecting curriculum balance is the creation of the National Science Foundation. This foundation receives its financial support from the federal government, from colleges and universities, and from industry. Although the program of the National Science Foundation is primarily directed toward research and development at the college level and in industry, a portion of its funds is used to promote science teaching and the training of science teachers at the elementary and secondary school levels. As in the case of the National Defense Education Act, the program of the National Science Foundation has shown many positive results. It does, however, highlight the issue of federal influence upon curriculum balance. This issue is stated clearly by the director of the foundation in its 1957 report.

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[6] Daniel P. Moynihan. "A Second Look at the School Panic." *Reporter* 20: 14-19; June 11, 1959. (Copyright 1959 by The Reporter Magazine Company.)

> A still more fundamental question is the extent to which the federal government should provide for support for educational training in science. At present this is limited to national fellowships of various kinds, summer institutes for training science teachers, and a few graduate school projects for year-long training of high school teachers, plus some programs for training in special critical fields. Our traditional policy has been to avoid federal aid to education (an important exception being the Morrill Act), and to leave the support of education to the States, the local communities, and to private sources. Now that our future, and indeed that of all nations, clearly depends critically upon the strengths of our science and technology, can we still maintain this "hands-off" principle on the part of the federal government?*

The growing role of the federal government in education, as evidenced by the National Defense Education Act and the National Science Foundation, requires that we take a new look at the influence of this role upon balance in the curriculum. How does this increased federal participation affect the role of the state and the role of the local community in educational decisions? How can we arrive at long-range planning at federal, state and local levels to achieve desirable balance in the curriculum? These questions and issues need study and decision in the years immediately ahead.

Role of the Self-Appointed Critic

Recent years have produced a rash of self-appointed critics of the American educational systems. Their criticisms have been given wide publicity in newspapers and magazines across the nation. In some instances these criticisms have been a careful analysis of some special area of study in the curriculum in which the critic has a particular interest. In other cases the criticisms reflect little awareness of what schools are accomplishing and less understanding of what the goals of American education are and should be.

In an earlier part of this chapter six criteria were suggested to assess the recommendations of those who would bring about change in the curriculum. These criteria need to be applied to the self-appointed critic by educators and lay citizens who are responsible for curriculum balance. In a recent article in one of the popular lay magazines these additional yardsticks were also suggested:

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* National Science Foundation. *Seventh Annual Report 1957*. Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1958. p. xv.

> 1. Is the critic honestly interested in improving education, or does he have an ax of his own to grind?
>
> 2. Is he basing his claims on facts?
>
> 3. Do his facts cover a large enough number of cases to tell a true and balanced story?
>
> 4. What about the critic's perspective? What would happen if we put his proposals into practice? Would the result be better schools to make a better America? [10]

The net result of the barrage of criticism directed against the schools is likely to be good. Although some educators were at first surprised and angered by the barrage, there were other school people who held that these criticisms should be welcomed, since they have stimulated public interest in education and have also encouraged a re-evaluation of curriculum content and method. It is likely, in years ahead, that the more careful appraisals of American education by the profession, by lay critics, and by qualified self-appointed critics may help place some of these earlier unwarranted criticisms in proper perspective and may prevent future imbalances in curriculum.

Role of Lay Periodicals

The point was made earlier in this volume that balance in the curriculum is and will continue to be affected by what the American public believes the school should do and by how the citizen evaluates the job the schools are doing. There are many avenues through which citizens work to affect what is done in the school—boards of education, citizens' committees, legislatures and special interest groups at local, state and national levels. The recommendations that lay citizens make for changes in our schools reflect not only their attitudes toward the schools in their own community, but also the ideas that are being discussed on a wider scene with implications for the nation as a whole. A discussion of balance in the curriculum warrants giving attention to the role of lay periodicals. It is in these publications that many of the recommendations and ideas concerning curriculum changes are reported and debated.

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[10] Earl H. Hanson. "Don't Stop Criticizing Us Teachers." *Saturday Evening Post* 231: 25, 67-69; April 11, 1959.

The decade of the 1950's showed a great increase in articles in lay magazines that have dealt with many aspects of education. It is difficult to judge whether the growing interest in education on the part of the lay public is the cause of the increasing number of articles in popular magazines, or whether this considerable volume of magazine articles has caused some of the burgeoning interest in education. Nevertheless, the increasing use of the lay magazine as a forum for the discussion of educational issues requires consideration of the role of the lay magazine as one of the forces affecting curriculum balance.

A review of recent articles indicates an emphasis on certain problems and on selected subjects. The following illustrate some topics and issues affecting curriculum balance being debated in lay magazines.

Changes ahead for the high school student? What changes will take place if the recommendations in the Conant report are carried out? One writer tells parents what to expect:

> Minimum course requirements will be four years of English, three years of history and related social studies, and at least one year each of mathematics and a science. To this minimum will be added elective studies, depending upon the student's interests and abilities. The academically talented students' courses will be considerably stiffer—at least five "solid" courses each year.
>
> Guidance will be more directive than it is now. Counselors will persuade more strongly and parents will be expected to help steer their children into the courses best suited to their capacities and talents.
>
> More homework will be assigned, with able students being expected to do 15 or 20 hours of "significant" outside work each week.
>
> Bright and less able students will not be separated along strict or narrow lines. They will be in the same schools and in the same home rooms. Ability grouping will be within each subject area.
>
> Students who study a foreign language will be expected to take the same language for at least three years, preferably four.
>
> Young people not among the top 20 percent in academic ability will be guided toward their future jobs in their junior and senior years, which should lessen their tendency to waste time or to have a negative attitude toward school.
>
> Pupils will be graded on a tough competitive scale, but the competition will be among those of similar ability rather than within a heterogeneous group. A transcript of each student's accomplishment will be printed on the back of his high school diploma.
>
> Other suggested changes include merging of small high schools, a longer school day, and—for the gifted—early entrance to college.[11]

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[11] Fred M. Hechinger. "Changes Ahead For Your High School Student?" *Parents' Magazine*, February 1959, published by The Parents' Institute, Inc., 52 Vanderbilt Ave., New York 17, N. Y.

The writer of this magazine article proposes that the recommendations in the Conant report be used as a yardstick by parents wishing to evaluate their local high school. He points out that Dr. Conant knows that good education does not come easily, that he believes our present educational system to be basically sound, and that he thinks the needed improvements can be made if the people really want them.

The first barrage of articles in current periodicals was sharply critical of the schools. During the last quarter of 1958, however, these negative criticisms began to wane, and articles in lay magazines stressed constructive ways to improve the schools. It is interesting that in these more recent articles the responsibility of the public for some of education's shortcomings is stressed. The public, it is stated, has demanded some courses that may be considered superfluous, and has sometimes shown general apathy toward the improvement of their schools. Emphasized also is the need for the American people to re-examine and revise their scale of values.

There is evidence that the [illegible] debate in current lay magazines has stimulated lay interest in curriculum improvement. We cannot accurately assess the influence of lay magazines upon education as a whole or upon curriculum balance in particular. We must recognize, though, that this influence does exist and is a factor in directing emphasis toward curriculum change. Although educators were constantly appraising and changing the curriculum long before the sputniks, they are using this revitalized lay interest in education to make desirable changes more quickly. As this intensive re-evaluation continues, the end result is likely to be a better balanced curriculum for *all* children and youth.

Role of Professional Associations

Groups of teachers working through their professional organizations exert an important influence upon balance in the curriculum. Many of these membership groups, organized on the basis of interest in a particular subject, seek to improve the curriculum in that field and also press for additional time for specific subjects in the curriculum. Other professional organizations include educators in a particular type of job, such as classroom teacher, supervisor, curriculum specialist, or administrator. These groups frequently sponsor projects affecting curriculum balance and organization. The yearbooks and special publications of these groups are a rich source of ideas for curriculum improvement.

At the state level are the state teachers associations which frequently sponsor research studies and workshops directed toward the improvement of instruction. At the national level is the National Education Association, with which many of the groups previously mentioned are affiliated. The NEA and its affiliates sponsor many conferences and committees concerned with curriculum development and curriculum balance in our schools. Also influential in instructional improvement in the elementary schools, kindergarten through the intermediate grades, is the Association for Childhood Education International.

The national associations, in addition to publishing many excellent yearbooks, also publish studies and reports designed to improve some particular aspect of the curriculum. Most of these national groups have their counterparts at the state level and curriculum is a major concern at their state meetings. Some research projects have been made possible by the cooperation of professional associations and foundations. For example, the Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary Schools is a cooperative effort of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, NEA, and one of the national foundations.

The professional education association plays an important role in achieving and maintaining a dynamic balance in the curriculum. The many different subject fields, the various levels of the education profession affected, and the special groups of pupils, problems, interests or concerns on which an association may focus its attention, give assurance that practically every part of the curriculum is represented. The professional association conferences and meetings for teachers and administrators, the studies and reports that are prepared and distributed, and the institutes and workshops that are organized contribute materially to curriculum improvement and curriculum balance.

Role of the Citizen in Maintaining Curriculum Balance

Past decades have been characterized by a tremendous spurt on the part of citizens in studying the problems of curriculum and of school support. We have seen the organization of many citizen committees at the local, state and national levels. Boards of education have increasingly involved individual citizens or a committee of citizens as advisers on special problems of budget, buildings and curriculum.

The use of citizens at the local level is based on a conviction that the improvement of education rests upon a foundation of broad understanding by the community of the purposes and achievements of its schools. Boards of education, charged with the responsibility for the operation and maintenance of a program of public education, have increasingly recognized the real and potential influence of the citizen's role. They accept the necessity for studying constructive ways of working with citizens for the improvement of the educational program.

1. *The local self-appointed citizen participant.* Citizen participation in curriculum development may take more than one form. There is the citizen with a grievance or a mission, who sets himself up as a critic of the existing school program and attempts to have it changed to conform with his views. He can usually find a few others to share his viewpoint. These one-sided points of view are seldom received with enthusiasm by the school administrator, because he recognizes these as being in violation of sound educational principles. Controversy, which descends to the level of personal vindictiveness, has been known to result. In these circumstances, the integrity, competence, motives and patriotism of school leaders and board members have, on occasion, come in for attack by such self-appointed citizen critics. Sometimes, courses of study, textbooks or library books have been condemned. Such criticisms can be met and handled constructively by well-prepared and courageous educational leaders, supported by a majority of well-informed, fair-minded fellow citizens.

2. *Citizen advisers working with boards and administrators.* Fortunately, in most communities, citizens are happy to make their contributions to curriculum planning through regular channels and in ways that are constructive. A school administrator can well make use of the interest and experience of citizens by inviting them to work with the professional staff in the development or revision of the curriculum. Many communities have regular curriculum councils or committees composed of representatives of the teaching and administrative staff. It has become quite customary to supplement such groups with advisory committees of lay citizens. Serving in this capacity, such citizens have frequently demonstrated their value in the improvement of the curriculum. Leaders in vocational education have long made use of the knowledge, experience and prestige of citizen advisory groups, to the great advantage of their program. Practicing farmers have served on advisory committees for agricultural education, labor and management representatives for industrial education, and business leaders for business education. Advisory committees of leading scientists have served successfully in some communities to help modernize science teaching in the schools.

Experience suggests that citizen advisers can contribute to curriculum planning most effectively when the following arrangements are maintained:

a. When citizens are officially invited by the board of education to serve on curriculum advisory committees

b. When the period of service is determined and announced at the time of appointment, with reappointment possible

c. When citizens are chosen to serve because of their recognized competence, experience and interest in the curriculum area being considered

d. When appropriate means are employed to help the candidate understand, before accepting appointment, the role of the citizen adviser

e. When this role is understood to be entirely advisory, and when it is recognized by the citizen adviser that the professional staff and the board of education may not follow his suggestions, either completely or in part, in adopting the final curriculum.

Most citizens who have the capacity to make a contribution to curriculum improvement will gladly serve under these conditions. With functions and relationships clearly understood, there is little danger that citizen participation will drift into citizen domination, or what is worse, mistrust, conflict and official embarrassment.

3. *The independent local citizens committee.* The use of independent local citizens committees represents a broadening of the scope of citizen involvement. Proponents of the independent citizens committee recognize the contribution of citizen advisers working with a board of education and with the school administrator, but take a position that an on-going and widely representative citizens committee is necessary to maintain community interest and understanding of the goals and achievements of their schools. The case for the citizens committee has been forcefully stated in a report of the New York State Citizens Committee for the Public Schools.

> Our schools, our school boards, and our school districts are facing what may be a contradiction in terms—a constant crisis, which can only be met by constant action—constant citizen action in support of the increasing amount of work that's ahead for school boards and school administrators.[12]

The citizens committee is a new force influencing balance in the curriculum. The constructive influence of this new force depends, not upon giving lip service to the idea by the board and by administrators, but rather upon how the committee was organized, its purposes, and the quality of its leadership. The most effective citizens committees reflect these characteristics:

a. Purposes are clearly stated and are constructive.
b. The committee is broadly representative of the community.
c. The program is well organized.
d. Leadership is strong with no private axes to grind.

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[12] E. A. Gray, Jr. Address at *The Second Westchester Conference on Education.* New York: New York State Citizens Committee for the Public Schools, January 1959.

e. Citizens clearly understand and respect the functions and responsibilities of the board of education and of administrators.

f. Board of education and administrators recognize and appreciate the role of the citizens committee.

Local citizens committees have been encouraged and improved by the help and guidance given citizens committees at state and national levels. How this has been accomplished will be reviewed in the following section.

4. *The state citizens committee.* The New York State Citizens Committee for the Public Schools furnishes an example of how the process of citizen participation can be improved by leadership at the state level. The New York State Citizens Committee, an independent organization financed by private contributions, has worked closely with citizens committees in many local districts of New York State. It has held area and state workshops, prepared and distributed reports of local committees, encouraged and guided local committees in their growth and development, and provided advice and consultant personnel when requested. Although the primary function of the New York State Citizens Committee is to stimulate and improve local committees rather than to concern itself directly with curriculum study and improvement, the influence of this organization upon local curriculum is reflected in many of the recommendations and actions of local citizens groups.

A measure of the potential influence of the New York State Citizens Committee is seen in the statistics contained in the Committee's 1959 report. This indicates that the committee has an active working relationship with 1700 citizen school groups in New York State. This report also emphasizes several major concerns. The first of these relates to the importance of representative committees, a criterion mentioned earlier in this chapter. The second emphasizes the basic interest of citizens committees in curriculum and the potential influence of this interest upon curriculum balance.

> The first major concern is for help with problems of organizing. Many citizen groups which have been working for years are facing up to the fact that they are becoming less representative through the years, a very natural tendency, but one which must not be allowed to happen.
>
> The second major concern is for help with making studies of the school program. We find that more citizen groups reject the role of rubber stamp approval of board and administration decisions about building needs, for example, and refuse to go out and sell a bond issue until they have studied all phases of the program to see if the projected new building really fits the program their own community wants and needs. Where there is no building problem, citizens

still want to study curriculum to decide for themselves whether they are paying for the kind of education they really want for their community."[13]

5. *The national citizens committee.* At the national level, the National Citizens Council for Better Schools and its predecessor, the National Citizens Committee for the Public Schools, have played an important role in education. Both have succeeded in arousing citizen interest and in helping communities organize for school improvement rather than in promoting the cause of any particular subject area within the curriculum. We can assume, however, that the Council's efforts in stimulating and in organizing local citizen groups have also had an effect locally upon curriculum decisions.

The Council recently decided to terminate its activities, since its primary goal of stimulating citizen interest in education has been achieved. In making its announcement, the Council indicated the possibility of another organization's undertaking a program "to illuminate the issues in education." If this is done, it is possible that such a program would touch more closely upon those issues which affect balance in the curriculum.

Quality of program and balance in the local curriculum are affected by citizens' understanding of the goals of education, of the schools' program for reaching these goals, and of pupil progress toward achieving the goals. To the extent that organizations such as those here described help citizens to study their schools constructively, these groups will have a positive influence in assisting the boards and their administrators to maintain balance in the curriculum.

Role of Foundations

The role of foundations in the stimulation of curriculum research and experimentation is one of the most interesting phenomena in our current educational scene. Recent years have seen a considerable increase in the number of foundations and in the funds available for educational research and experimentation. In many communities foundation aid has provided, in all or in part, support for curriculum development that could not have been obtained from the agencies responsible for education at the state or local level.

Foundations must make decisions concerning the educational research and curriculum development projects they wish to support within the limits of their available funds. As these decisions are made, more concentrated attention and emphasis are directed toward certain areas of the curriculum, toward specific levels of education, toward changes in method, teaching and organization, and toward the use of newer and different types of equipment and materials. Research and experimentation resulting from these foundation-supported projects add their influence to the process of achieving balance in the curriculum.

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[13] New York State Citizens Committee for the Public Schools. *Report of the Work of the New York State Citizens Committee in 1959, by Violet Edwards, Executive Director.* 2 West 45th Street, New York, N. Y.

The rapidly expanding interest of foundations in education during recent years warrants a more intensive study of foundation-aided projects and their influence upon curriculum, organization and teaching methods than is feasible here. Such a study should also attempt to assess some of the longer-range effects of foundations upon education. A brief mention of some of the foundation-aided projects at this point will provide some idea of their scope.

The Portland High School Curriculum Study was undertaken by nine Oregon colleges and universities at the request of the Portland schools. The general purpose of the project was to undertake a detailed study of the curriculum for students of college potential in the Portland schools. The results of this study were presented in a 13 volume report containing approximately 125 general and specific recommendations as to curriculum content, curriculum organization, and requirements for potential college-bound students.

In the same city, a five year study of the gifted child was undertaken with foundation support. The grant has expired but the cost of the program continues to be financed by the school district. In appraising the results, the report of the project states:

> The Portland program is admittedly a partial solution to the problem of educating gifted children. It is probably as permanent a feature of the educational program as any because after seeing how very capable these boys and girls are and how much they need and want to learn, it would be difficult to justify the withdrawal of these special opportunities.[14]

In Washington County, Maryland, an experiment in closed circuit television has attracted national attention. This program reaches 16,500 of the 18,000 pupils enrolled in the county. Although it is too early to predict the more permanent influences of television education upon the curriculum in Washington County, the project has resulted in clearer knowledge of the limitations and the potential of the use of educational television in the classroom.

A survey of foundation projects indicates that large sums of money have been granted for educational projects. Some of these have been concerned with the preparation of teachers, general curriculum improvement, use of new resources such as television and tapes, better organization and arrangement of resources for learning, improvement of programs in special subject areas, comprehensive evaluation of educational purposes and programs, and recommendations for changes. Foundation aid has also stimulated research programs at national and state levels for improving the selection and preparation of school administrators.

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[14] Portland Public Schools. *The Gifted Child in Portland*. Portland, Oregon: the Schools, 1959. p. 144.

Grants have been made in relation to all levels of education—elementary, secondary, college and university. The potential influence of these grants is not limited to the particular level or institution receiving the grant. Projects at a university level, for example, might be concerned solely with the improvement of instruction in one or more of the curriculum fields of secondary education. The Portland study previously cited is an example of this kind. Many such projects have received wide attention in lay and professional publications and have stimulated thinking beyond the geographical area in which the project was conducted. Although a list of such projects would go far beyond the scope of this chapter, most educators are familiar with reports of the Portland, Oregon, Gifted Child Study, the Conant report on the American high school, the Rockefeller report, entitled *The Pursuit of Excellence*, and the study of closed circuit television in Washington County, Maryland.

The interest of American foundations in education and the considerable financial resources they are allocating to experimentation and research have implications for the educator as he faces the problem of maintaining balance in the curriculum. Foundations differ in purposes and policies. Although many positive results have come through foundation-aided programs, there are several questions which should enter into an appraisal of a particular program or project.

1. Is the purpose of the project primarily to demonstrate the merits of a particular method or technique? Or, does the project set up a research experiment in accordance with accepted research procedures?
2. Does the extensive publicity that sometimes accompanies a project inhibit the research efforts which may be more vital and significant for education?
3. Do the conclusions and recommendations include the negative findings and pitfalls as well as the positive outcomes?
4. Do the conclusions and recommendations have general application, or is their application highly limited and restricted?

As the educator assesses the role of foundations, he must give careful thought to these questions. He needs to evaluate findings and recommendations, judge their application to his own school system, and place them in proper perspective and balance within his own school district.

It most certainly would be a worthy outcome if foundation-supported research also resulted in continuing and expanding research programs supported at local levels. Evidence of this development can already be seen in the school systems that have included the projects in the regular school budget after foundation grants have been spent. Some foundation projects involving several smaller school districts are now working cooperatively in a single program of study and experimentation. In some instances such districts have already pooled their resources to provide special teachers and pupil personnel services that could not have been provided effectively by a single district. The extension of such pooling of resources for research and experimentation involving several school districts working together could help to establish a pattern for continuing research that otherwise might never be accomplished.

In summary, we have examined in this chapter the roles of many groups and individuals as they affect balance in the curriculum. There is evidence of greater activity on the part of some groups seeking to effect curriculum changes. This increased activity and readjustment of roles reflects a revitalized concern for and a recognition of the role of education in the future of our people. Perhaps we have approached the level of understanding of the importance of education reflected in this statement from Alfred North Whitehead:

> In the conditions of modern life the rule is absolute—the race which does not value trained intelligence is doomed. Not all your heroism, not all your social charm, not all your wit, not all your victories on land or at sea, can move back the finger of fate. Today we maintain ourselves. Tomorrow science will have moved forward yet [illegible] more step, and there will be no appeal from the judgment which will then be pronounced on the uneducated.[15]

Earlier chapters of this yearbook have discussed the significance of purposes and values in our education. It is important that we carefully evaluate the effects of changes in the roles of individuals or groups described in this chapter in terms of our values and purposes, as well as in terms of their effect upon balance in the curriculum. Such evaluation will be of vital concern to the educator in the years immediately ahead.

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[15] New York State Citizens Committee for the Public Schools. Quoted in *The President's Message at the Eighth Annual Meeting, Arden House, November 1959.*

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(As of November 1, 1960)

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